Palí Text Society.

Journal

OF THE

PALI TEXT SOCIETY.

1883.

EDITED BY

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OF THE MIDDLE TEMPLE, BARRISTER-AT-LAW.

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PÂLI TEXT SOCIETY.

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This Society has been started in order to render accessible to students the rich stores of the earliest Buddhist literature now lying unedited and practically unused in the various MSS. scattered throughout the University and other Public Libraries of Europe.

The historical importance of these Texts can scarcely be exaggerated, either in respect of their value for the history of folk-lore, or of religion, or of language. It is already certain that they were all put into their present form within a very limited period, probably extending to less than a century and a half (about B.C. 400-250). For that period they have preserved for us a record, quite uncontaminated by filtration through any European mind, of the every-day beliefs and customs of a people nearly related to ourselves, just as they were passing through the first stages of civilization. They are our best authorities for the early history of that interesting system of religion so nearly allied to some of the latest speculations among ourselves, and which has

influenced so powerfully, and for so long a time, so great a portion of the human race—the system of religion which we now call Buddhism. The sacred books of the early Buddhists have preserved to us the sole record of the only religious movement in the world's history which bears any close resemblance to early Christianity. In the history of speech they contain unimpeachable evidence of a stage in language midway between the Vedic Sanskrit and the various modern forms of speech in India. In the history of Indian literature there is nothing older than these works, excepting only the Vedic writings; and all the later classical Sanskrit literature has been profoundly influenced by the intellectual struggle of which they afford the only direct evidence. It is not, therefore, too much to say that the publication of this unique literature will be no less important for the study of history,—whether anthropological, philological, literary, or religious,—than the publication of the Vedas has already been.

The Subscription to the Society is One Guinea a year, or Five Guineas for six years, payable in advance. Each subscriber receives, post free, the publications of the Society.

It is hoped that persons who are desirous to aid the publication of these important historical texts will give Donations to be spread if necessary over a term of years.

^{***} Subscriptions for 1884 are now due, and it is earnestly requested that subscribers will send in their payments without putting the Chairman to the expense and trouble of personally asking for them. All who can conveniently do so should send the Five Guineas for six years, to their own benefit and that of the Society also.

REPORT

OF THE

PALI TEXT SOCIETY FOR 1883.

On coming before the members of the Pali Text Society at the commencement of a second year, I have again to congratulate them on the improved position to which it has attained during the last twelve months. The number of five-guinea subscribers has risen from 18 to 39, while notwithstanding the fact that several of the one-guinea subscribers of last year have transferred themselves to the higher list, and two of them have transferred themselves to the Ceylon local list, yet the number of one-guinea subscribers in this year's list is greater by two than that in the last (75 as against 73). In other words, the number of our members in Europe and America has risen from 91 to 114, not including two new subscribers who have joined us since the beginning of the year 1884. This is so far very satisfactory. But it is needless to point out that it is not yet enough. We ought to have at least 200 subscribers to place the Society on that permanent footing which it so richly deserves, and I venture to hope that each of our members will feel it to be his duty to spread the knowledge of the Society among his acquaintances, and to endeavour to obtain new subscribers or new donors. Your chairman's power in this respect has now been exhausted, and it remains for the members of the Society to do their part. There must be many persons of wealth, known to our members, who would be willing to aid so good a cause if its claims were properly put before them. And though those of our members who are scholars are also, for that reason, mostly poor in purse, they are rich in influence which they can legitimately use.

Our friends in Ceylon have continued to support our undertaking. Four of them are five-guinea subscribers, and eighty-seven of them had paid their second subscription before the accounts were made up by our honorary local agent, the Atapattu Mudaliar of Galle, to whose business capacity and public-spirited zeal the Society owes so much. The result is that after payment of all the local expenses, including purchase of MSS., there is a balance there of nearly £90 in favour of the Society.

To pass now to our this year's publications, we present our subscribers with the Thera- and Therî-Gâthâ, edited by Professor Oldenberg and Professor Pischel respectively, the latter of whom has been kind enough to draw up the index to the whole work. These ancient hymns contain many passages of great beauty and power; and afford valuable evidence of the high ideal of life prevailing among the early Buddhists. There seems to be no good reason for doubting the tradition which ascribes their composition to different members of the Buddhist order; though the general tone is the same throughout, and certain favourite expressions recur in hymns attributed to different authors. It is especially worthy of notice that several of the most beautiful and striking of these poems are said to be, and no doubt actually were, the work of women. It is quite justifiable to claim the main credit of this remarkable fact for Buddhism. Had they not become Bhikkhunîs, the gifted authors would not have had either the mental stimulus or the literary training which enabled them to compose their hymns. none the less true that the Therî-Gâthâ affords fresh proof, if such be needed, that the present position of women in India is a modern innovation, due in great part to the influence of Muhammadanism, and alien to the whole spirit of ancient Indian institutions. I would add that it would have been impossible for these poems to have been published

thus early if it had not been for the help of the well-known native scholar, Subhûti Unnânsê of Waskaduwa, who most generously sent us on loan, all the way from Ceylon, four of his own MSS.

Dr. Morris gives us this year the Puggala Paññatti, the first text which has yet been published from the Abhidhamma Pitaka, and for that reason alone of great interest and value. It has been supposed that the Abhidhamma was different from the Dhamma in the sense of being more The publication of this text shows that this metaphysical. is not the case. It deals exclusively with the ethics of the so-called "Excellent Way," and contains nothing inconsistent with the no doubt earlier Suttas of the four great It explains a very considerable number of the Nikâvas. most important technical and figurative expressions used of those who are walking along the stages of that Excellent Way, and the valuable Index which Dr. Morris has appended to his text will enable these explanations to be readily referred to and easily used.

I have in my possession a very excellent MS. of the commentary on this book. Our Ceylon contributors do not care for extracts only being given from such commentaries. They prefer to have the whole work; the more especially as it is precisely those parts of a commentary which a European editor is most likely to omit—the exegetical parts—to which they naturally attach the most importance. With this feeling I confess myself to have much sympathy, and Dr. Morris and myself intend therefore to edit the whole of this commentary unabridged, during this year if possible, and if not during next year.

In another respect the Ceylon scholars object to abridgments. Professor Oldenberg in his Vinaya, and Dr. Morris in the first part of his Anguttara, have put sometimes the first letters only, of the words in constantly repeated clauses, for the words themselves. To this the Ceylon readers have a strong antipathy, which has been brought to my notice not only by the Atapattu Mudaliar of Galle, but also by other correspondents. The nature of these complaints will

appear from the following remarks of Srî Saddhânanda Thera of Ratgama, who, with reference to the Anguttara (and after praising the size of the letters, and the form and shape of the volume itself, as very satisfactory), goes on to say: "The Dhamma, and the Vinaya, and the commentaries upon them were recorded in books without any interference with the regular succession of words as handed down by the Arahats who heard them from the mouth of the Blessed One himself, and as preserved at the three Councils of five hundred, of seven hundred, and of ten hundred, held subsequent to the Buddha's decease by the pure and learned servants of the Samma Sambuddha, presided over by the Theras Mahâ Kassapa, and Sabbakâmi, and Yasa; and since then also at the Council held during a whole year at the Aloka Wihâra in Ceylon by Arahats who were about a thousand in number. On those occasions, for the sake of curtailment in passages that were alike, they made abbreviations which they designated by letter-signs such as 'pe.' And to interfere, either with words or letters, otherwise than is done by the peyyâlams made use of by the Arahats, has frequently been declared to be not good. Apart from myself, many learned members of the Order have declared to me how much they dislike any such other abbreviations. Any manuscript copies made from (printed) texts so abbreviated would be at variance with the traditional readings. So at page 2, line 15, of the above-named work, pariyâdiyati is expressed by paro, and at line 6 samanupassámi by samo; and often bho stands where bhikkhave should be." Now it is even quite open to question whether the frequent use of such abbreviations is useful to the European reader. It is true that one who is reading straight on will know quite well what is meant; but when a student, turning to a passage for reference only, comes suddenly upon several successive words so shortened, then the mechanical trouble, which the writer has saved himself, is transferred to the reader's shoulders, and he is obliged, with much loss of time, to look backwards and forwards in order to find out what the words, merely suggested and

not fully expressed, really are. Whatever they may think of this argument, our editors will, I am sure, be quite ready to fall in with the very intelligible scruples of our numerous subscribers in Ceylon; and will refrain therefore, as far as possible, from the use of any other contractions than the peyyâlams, as found in the native MSS.

Our Journal this year comes nearer to what it is intended to be than it was last year: and contains a number of original papers likely to be interesting to those who wish to understand the Pâli Pitakas. We have, as before, lists of HSS. in Europe; but these are supplemented by other helps to the study of our Pâli Texts. Thus Dr. Edward Müller of Cardiff College gives us an independent text, the Khuada- and Mûla-Sikkhâ, which is a kind of summary, in the form of a memoria technica, of the Vinaya. It is assigned by tradition to a period antecedent to Buddhaghosa (A.D. 377), and to two authors (Mahâ Sâmi for the Khudda and Dramma Siri for the Mûla) said to be Bhikkhus then residing at Anuradhapura. Dr. Edward Müller is evidently disposed to think that the evidence of the language used in the two works is against this tradition, and would rather tend to show that they must be assigned to the sixth or even the seventh century. On this point it is important to recellect the course of the development of Pali Literature in Ceylon. Pâli was there studied for a long time after the introduction of Buddhism merely as a dead language in which the sacred books were handed down. The commentaries on those books were studied in Sinhalese prose, a line or two of Pâli zerse being introduced here and there at salient points to emphasize or sum up the narrative. The chronicles of the Order were kept in the same form, and Professor Oldenberg has clearly shown how the Dîpavansa must have been based on such a chronicle preserved in the Mahâ Vihâra at Anurâdhapura. That book is very probably, indeed, little more than a collection of the "emphatic verses" from the previously existing prose chronicle in Sinhalese. It was only with Mahânâma and Buddhaghosa that independent and original works were actually composed throughout in Pâli. Their

successors—the authors, for instance, of the Jâtaka Book, and of the Mahâvansa Tîkâ, and of commentaries on the Dhammapada, which latter work is not by Buddhaghosa 1 were imitators of their style and method. During this period Pâli was used in Ceylon very much as Latin was before the Reformation in Europe. It had become a cultivated literary language; and though there was a difference between it and the Pâli of the Pitakas similar to, though less than, the difference between mediæval and classical Latin, still those who used it had a distinct mastery over it. We do not know how long this period lasted. The continual incursions of the Tamils, the general disorder in the kingdom, must have been incompatible with much literary effort for a long time before the rise of Parâkrama the Great. There is no evidence to show that it lasted for even so long as three centuries. With Parâkrama's conquest of South India a new era began. Sanskrit was much studied; and the influence of Sanskrit becomes plainly perceptible in the loss of simplicity and freedom, in the long compounds, in the intricate versification, of the Pâli works of Cevlon authors written after that date. It is needless for the purposes of this argument to come any further down: and of these three periods, which may be called the memoriter period, the commentary period, and the Sanskritized period, it seems very hazardous to assign the rough and ready memorial verses of the Khudda- and Mûla-Sikkha to any other than the first. I venture therefore to think that the traditional date, about 377 A.D., should be accepted as the best working hypothesis for the date of these two There are enough differences—though these of course not on the most vital points—between the summary in these books and the Vinaya itself to make them of considerable interest for the history of the Buddhist Order in Ceylon; and more than enough to justify these few remarks. I hope to insert an article in a future number of the Journal dealing in detail with these curious differences.

¹ See my "Buddhist Birth Stories," pp. lxiii-lxv.

Professor Max Müller has been kind enough to allow me to reprint the very beautiful letter which he wrote to the *Times* on the death of one of our members, the young Japanese Buddhist Scholar at Oxford, Kenjiu Kasawara. This will I trust become a precedent with us; and I knew Mr. Kasawara well enough to appreciate how well he deserves all that his Professor says of him.

The writer has added a note on certain questions of the literary history of early Buddhism, which shows, in the same manner as the excursus appended to his Cambridge Lectures did, how valuable for the decision of such questions are the notices contained in the Chinese Buddhist literature. I trust that the whole subject of early Buddhist history will be exhaustively dealt with from this point of view in a forthcoming work by Mr. Watters, who will perhaps touch on some points of it in our next year's issue. Already in our present issue the 'Notes and Queries' by Mr. Bendall show how close is the connection between the various literatures of early Buddhism, and the more we know of them, the more, I am convinced, will this prove to be the It will be not the least of the advantages of our Pâli Text Society if it should aid the workers in the vast field of the history of Buddhism-the history of half the world for nearly twenty centuries-to know one another better, and appreciate one another's labours more.

The lists of MSS. given in our present number conclude all the great collections. Those in Berlin, and the few in the library of the Royal Asiatic Society, will follow in our next. We are still much pressed for want of good MSS. of the texts we have in hand. I have been fortunate enough to commence a correspondence with a gentleman in Burma, Mr. P. E. Raven, of the Public Works Department there, who has already shown himself to be a good friend to scholarship by sending us MSS. of the Patthana and of the Sumangala Vilâsina on the Mahavagga of the Dîgha Nikâya, and who promises to send us more. The MS. of the commentary on the Puggala Paññatti, referred to above, arrived from Ceylon just in time to enable Dr. Morris to complete

his edition of that work for this year. But we want more. Our friends in Burma and Ceylon must recollect that three or four good and independent MSS. at least are required for the proper publication of any one text, and I would repeat the appeal made in our last journal for copies of such MSS. of

Udâna Paṭisambhidâ
Vimâna-vatthu Apadâna
Peta-vatthu Kathâ-vatthu
Niddesa Vibhanga—and
Visuddhi-magga Dhâtu-kathâ,

with the respective commentaries upon them. The Atapattu Mudaliar of Galle has in this respect, as in so many others, been hitherto a good friend to us, and so has Subhûti Unnânsê; but only two others of our subscribers in Ceylon, Bulatgama Unnânsê and Sri Saddhânanda of Ratgama (whose remarks I have quoted above, and another letter from whom was printed in our Journal for 1882) have come forward to help us.

Our next year's issue will include the Iti-vuttaka, by Professor Windisch of Leipzig, and an edition of the Abhidhammattha Sangaha, and an instalment of at least one of the great Nikâyas, besides the subsidiary papers which will appear in the Journal.

T. W. RHYS DAVIDS.

P.S. Might I venture to ask those yearly subscribers, who have not as yet done so, to send in their subscriptions for 1884 as soon as possible. If they wait till the end of the year, the issue of our publications will be again delayed next year, as it has been this, by getting in the subscriptions at the last moment. Though we have improved in this matter upon last year, there is still room for improvement, and this assistance is not a great thing to ask from those who, by the very fact of their subscribing at all, have shown their interest in our work.

BUDDHISM:

ITS ORIGIN; HISTORY; AND DOCTRINES:

ITS SCRIPTURES;

AND

THEIR LANGUAGE, THE PALI.

BEING TWO LECTURES DELIVERED AT COLOMBO,

JAMES ALWIS, Esq.

"BREVIS ESSE LABORO, OBSCURUS FIO."

For the Benefit of the Colombo Friend-in-Need Society.

[Reprinted from the Colombo Observer.]

[At the special request of some of our subscribers in Ceylon, the following two Lectures by a distinguished native Scholar are here reprinted from the *Colombo Observer* of the 22nd May, 1862.]

LECTURE FIRST.

Delivered in the Council Chamber,

On the 25th October, 1861.

BUDDHISM; IT'S ORIGIN; HISTORY; AND DOCTRINES.

THE topic of my discourse this evening is, as you are aware, Buddhism. It is a subject of great and peculiar interest. It is invested with interest not only because Gôtama effected a change of Brahman institutions on Brahman soil-not only on account of the tendency which his doctrines had to upset the social polity of all eastern nations, the system of castes, but also for the most wonderful results which Buddhism has effected in the greater part of Asia. Perhaps there is notcertainly, there was not, in the whole world a religion of human invention, which deserves greater examination than Buddhism. It began in the very dawn of history. history commenced with the very commencement of what may be called Chronology. Its era divided the history of the East into two parts, just as the Christian era served to divide the history of the world. 1 Nor is this all the interest which attaches to the subject. Buddhism has more than any other religion spread amongst men. It is the religion which, having been banished from its native land so entirely, that it is almost unknown there, has at the present day, upwards of 2449 years after its first promulgation, a larger number of

¹ Prof. Max Muller's Sanscrit Lit. p. 35.

followers than any other religion on the face of the whole earth, and amounting to nearly one-third of the human race. It is also a remarkable fact as stated by Mr. Hardy that "there is no country in either Europe or Asia besides those that are Buddhist in which the same religion is now professed that was there extant at the time of the Redeemer's death."²

There is a still higher interest connected with the subject, when we regard Buddhism as the religion which has forged the fetters in which Brahmanism has been bound; which has humanized a great portion of mankind in the East; and which has established its civilizing influence in the greater part of Western Asia, and in our own Island. This last was the result of the mildness of the doctrines which Buddhism inculcates; and it will be noticed that they prescribe a code of morality, superior to every system with which we are acquainted, except that of Christianity.

I shall briefly consider it here in three different points of view:—First, as to its origin; Secondly, its doctrines; and Thirdly, its prospects.

More than five centuries before the manifestation of our Saviour in this world, in an 'age remarkable for the first diffusion and potent influence of distinct religious brotherhood, mystic rites, and expiatory ceremonies's in the West; when the doctrine of 'an infinity of worlds' was taught by an Anaximander and a Xenophanes;—when Brahmanism had been 'reduced from the worship of nature to theism, and had declined into scepticism with the learned, and menworship with the vulgar,'4 and was through the neglect of its professors fast dwindling into decay;5—and, at a time too, when the Hindoos were marked with the barbarity of human sacrifice, various persons in Asia founded religious

¹ Sir E. Tennent's Christianity, p. 199. Also M. Troyer's Râjatarangiri, 399; Hardy's East. Mon. p. v.

Hardy's East. Mon. p. 327. Grote's Greece.

Hist. of India, vol. 1, B. 2, c. iv. Buddhavausa.

associations proclaiming different doctrines for the salvation Some were Digambaras; and the morality of the times suffered them to go about naked. Others were Svetambaras or those who put on 'white garments.' Some were fire-worshippers, and others adorers of the sun. Some belonged to the Sanyàsi, and others to the Panchatâpa sects. Some worshipped Padaranga; some Jivaka: and others Nigantha. The Jainas, who followed the Lôkâyata, or the system of atheistical philosophy taught by Chârvâka, also appear to have flourished at this time.² In addition to these Gôtama himself enumerates 62 sects of religious Philosophers.

My limited time, however, does not permit me to dwell upon the different doctrines of these sects.3 Suffice it to say that about the sixth century before the Christian era, all shades of opinion and practices were tolerated: - "The broachers of new theories and the introducers of new rites did not revile the established religion, and the adherents of the old vedic system of elemental worship looked on the new notions as speculations they could not comprehend, and the new austerities as the exercise of a self-denial they could not reach, rather than as the introduction of heresy and schism." But few of these sects believed in a 'first cause;' and none acknowledged a supreme God; -therefore they differed in this respect from the Brahmans who attributed everything to the creative head of Brahmâ or Ishwara. One important point of agreement, however, between these Sectarians and the Vedic Brahmans was, that none dared to violate the Institution of Castes, which all Brahmans regarded as Yet amongst them there were six arch Heretics, who regarded not the distinctions which divided men into Brahmans, Kshetriyas, Vaisyas and Sudras; and for the simplest of all reasons, that they were themselves of mean extraction.

They set forth their They preached to the people.

See Buddhist Annals in the Bengal As. Soc. Journ. for September, 1837.
 Aswalâyâna Suttan in the Majjima Nikâya.
 See Ambatta Suttan.

doctrines. They at first resorted to the most legitimate means of conversion, viz. argument and discussion. these, often, were of themselves insufficient, and availed little. Something else was required; and that was supernatural powers in those who passed for religious teachers. versed however in deceit, they found no difficulty in invention, and in exhibiting supernatural powers. In proof of inspiration, to which they laid claim, they declared doctrines unintelligible to the vulgar, and above the comprehension of the common order of society. As possessing the power of tddhi they, like the teacher of Rasselas, often ascended an eminence to fly in the air. But, unlike the Abyssinian teacher who leaped into the water, upon the strength of his wings which sustained him in the water, the Tîrtakas resorted to other frauds, which they easily practised upon a deluded population. Thus they soon became established as Arahantas, at the head of distinct fraternities, having numerous congregations consisting of thousands of poor deluded human beings.

An account of them may not prove uninteresting, and the following compiled from several writers, especially from the Saddharmålankåra, is a brief outline of

THE HISTORY OF THE SIX TÎRTAKAS.

1. One was a half-caste—he was born in a nobleman's house, of a girl that was a foreigner. He pretended to be a Brahman; and assumed the name of the "twice born." He called himself Kasyapa, and received the additional appellation of Purna, because his birth served to "complete" the number of one hundred slaves in his master's household. For the same reason he became a favourite of his lord and enjoyed many privileges which his fellow-servants were denied. These acts of kindness, however, had a tendency to make him indolent and lazy; and the consequence was that his master soon put him to work, and appointed him his porter. This situation deprived him of the unlimited liberty

which he had previously enjoyed, and he therefore quitted the service of his master. In the helpless state in which he roamed about the country after his desertion, he was set upon by thieves, who stripped him of everything he had, including the very clothes on his person. Having, however, escaped death, he repaired in a state of perfect nudity to the neighbouring villages, where poverty led him to practise many deceptions on the credulous, until at last he established himself as an Ascetic, proclaiming his name to be Purna Kasyapa Buddha. Purna, because (he said) he was full of all arts and sciences; Kasyapa, 'because he was a Brahman by birth;' and Buddha 'because he had overcome all desires and was an Arahat.' He was offered clothes in abundance, but declined accepting them, thinking that as a Digama. A he would be better respected. 'Clothes,' said he, 'are for the concealment of shame; shame is the result of sin; and sin I have not, since I am a person of sanctity (a rahat) who is free from evil desires.' In the then state of society, distracted by religious differences, he gained followers, and they soon exceeded eighty thousand!

"His heresy consisted," says Col. Sykes, on the authority of the Chinese Buddhistical Annals, "in annihilating all laws. He admitted neither prince nor subject, neither father nor son; neither rectitude of heart nor filial piety; and he had some mystification about void, vacuum, or ether being paramount."

2. Makkhalì Gòsàlà was another sectarian Teacher. He was slave in a nobleman's house, and was called Makkhalì, after his mother; and by reason of his having been born in a gòsàla or 'cow-house,' he received the additional appellation gòsàla. One day he followed his master with a large pot of oil; and the latter perceiving his servant was on slippery, muddy ground, desired him to be on his guard. But not listening to his advice, he walked carelessly, and the result was that he stumbled upon a stump and fell down with his heavy load, breaking the pot of oil. Fearing that his master would punish him for his misconduct, Gòsàla began to run away. His master soon pursued him and seized him by his

- garments, but they loosening Gòsàla effected his escape, naked. In this state he entered a city and passed for a Digambara Jaina, or Buddha, and founded the sect which was named after him. "He falsely believed," says Col. Sykes, in the same Essay from which I have quoted above, "that the good and evil of mankind did not result from previous actions, but were accidental. His doctrine, therefore, was that of chance."
- 3. Nigantha nàtha puttra was the founder of a third Sect. He was the 'son' (puttra) of Nàtha, a husbandman; and because he boasted of an acquaintance with the entire circle of the Arts and Sciences, and moreover pretended to have destroyed the gantha, the 'cores' or 'knots' of keles, he was called Nigantha, or Nirgantha. He, too, laid claim to the high sanctity of an Arahanta, and preached doctrines, which were soon embraced by thousands. He held that it was sinful to drink cold water,—'Cold water,' he said, 'was imbued with a soul. Little drops of water were small souls, and large drops were large souls.' He also declared that there were three dandas or agents for the commission of sin, and that the acts of the body (kàya), of the speech (wàk), and of the mind (nana), were three separate causes, each acting independently of the other. "His heresy consisted (says Col. Sykes) in maintaining that sins and virtues and good and evil equally resulted from destiny; and that the practice of the doctrine could not save any one from his fate."
- 4. A fourth was the servant of a noble family. Having run into debt, he fled from his creditors, and having no means of livelihood at the village to which he repaired, he became a practiser of austerities, after shaving his head, and putting on a 'mean garment made of hair;' from which circumstance he received the appellation of Ajita kesakambala. Amongst other doctrines which distinguished him from the rest of the Titthiyas was that by which he invested the three kingdoms of nature with a soul. He held that man and beast, and every creeping thing, and fowl of the air, as well as all trees and shrubs, had a jirâ, or intelligent and sentient soul, endued with body, and consequently composed of parts.

'The person,' said he, 'who took away the life of a being was equally guilty with the man who ate the flesh of his dead body. One who cut down a tree, or destroyed a creeper, was as guilty as a murderer. And he who broke a branch was to be regarded as one who deprived another of his limbs. These doctrines procured for him many followers, and they soon exceeded five thousand! Col. Sykes says, upon the authority already referred to, that this sectarian teacher "maintained that destiny could be forced, namely, that happiness could be obtained which did not result from a previous existence. The practice of this doctrine consisted in wearing coarse garments, tearing out the hair, exposing the nostrils to smoke, and the various parts of the body to fire; in short, subjecting the body to every kind of cruel penance on the conviction that sufferings on earth would ensure happiness hereafter."

5. Sanjaya bellathi, who had an awkward-looking head, was also a slave by birth. Obtaining his freedom from his master, he applied himself to study; and when he had become a great proficient in different branches of learning, he proclaimed himself a Buddha. He taught as a distinguishing feature in his doctrines, that man in an after-birth would be as he is now. 'In the transmigration of the soul,' he said, 'it assumed the identical bodily form which it had retained before death. There could be no change of person. Whosoever is now great or mean; a man or a deva, a biped, a quadruped, or a milleped: without feet or hands, or with deficient members of the body, will be exactly the same in the next birth.'

According to the Chinese books from which Colonel Sykes has quoted, the heresy of this person "consisted in believing that it was not necessary to search for the doctrine in the sacred book, but that it would come spontaneously when the ages of births and deaths had been passed through. He also believed that after 80,000 Kalpas the doctrine was obtained without effort."

6. Kakudha Katyayana was a foundling—the offspring of an illicit intercourse. His mother, who was a poor low caste

person, had no house to live in, and was delivered of him under a Kakudha (Pentaptura Arjuna, Rox.) tree, where she left him. A Brahman who picked him up, from thence adopted him as his son, and named him Katyayana, with the prefix of Kakudha, because he was found under a tree of that name. Upon the death, however, of his adopted father, Katyayana found himself in difficult circumstances, and resorted to different means and ways of procuring a livelihood—all of which failing, he became an Ascetic, and established himself on a large mound of earth, where he preached his austerities as a teacher of high sanctity. Like Niganthanata-putta, Katyayana also declared that cold water was imbued with a soul. His heresy, according to the Chinese legends, consisted in asserting that some of the laws were appreciable by the senses, and some not.

Whilst such doctrines gained an immense number of followers; whilst the world was resounding with the noise of the philosophy of the Gymnosophists; whilst Society was greatly divided by the dissensions of religionists; -- when many causes predisposed the public mind to a change; when, "through the indolence of the Brahmans, the Vedas and their accompaniments had been neglected;" 1 and when 'many people walked about in the world saying I am Buddha, I am Buddha, thus assuming the name of the great;'2 the son of a powerful monarch that reigned at Kapilavastu, on the borders of Nepal, started as a Buddha, announcing himself as 'the true Jaina,' 'the teacher of the three worlds,' - wiser than the wisest,' and 'higher than the highest;' and proclaiming the doctrine of VIRTUE, which soon won its way to the hearts of a people 'whose inclinations had already been imbued with admiration of this quality in their own ancient system.'

It has already been stated that he was a prince. That he received an education more than suited to his princely rank

¹ Buddhavansa.

² Imasmin lôke ahan Buddhô ahan Buddhô ti uggatasa nâman gahetvâ bahujanâ vicharantî.—Comment to the Majjima Nikâya.

appears clearly enough from the abstruse doctrines of his Philosophy. From his discourses, which relate to the Vedas and Vedanga, he was doubtless well versed in Brahmanical lore. The "sixty-four alphabets" which he mastered, according to the Lalita Vistara (a book of no authority), may be more imaginary than real. Yet that he learnt most of the Arts and Sciences usually cultivated amongst the Indians may be believed. The Buddhavansa refers to his other accomplishments, and in the usual phraseology of Oriental exaggeration, he is said to have excelled a Samson in strength. Many of his feats in archery are detailed "in proof of his accomplishments in martial deeds." They were exhibited to prove his right to the hands of "the daughters of the proud Sakya tribes."

The period that he passed as a laic was indeed short. Yet in that short period of 29 years he had enjoyed life to his heart's content. Revelling in the luxuries of the State, surrounded by a host of damsels, and attended by his bands of female musicians, he dwelt in the three 'palaces adapted for the three seasons.' The Ramma of nine stories he occupied during one; the Surama of seven at another; and the Subha of five at a third.³

A mind, however, constituted such as Siddharta's was, soon became satisted. The sharp edge of enjoyment had been speedily blunted. The zest of carnal pleasures had gradually subsided. He had not been long a father before he became disgusted with life. The form of a decrepit old man, bent with age and emaciated by disease, informed him of his own future condition. The lifeless body of one who had previously moved like himself, reminded him of the uncertainty of life, and of his own approaching dissolution. When he was pondering on these things, and the Brahmanical Golden rule—that "religious austerity was the summit of excellence;" and the figure of an Ascetic had arrested his gaze,—his mind was at once made up to renounce the world,

¹ See Ambatta Suttan, etc.

² Buddhavansa.

³ Idem.

⁴ Dhammapada—Buddha-Vagga.

its vanities, and its troubles. He preferred seclusion to the ceaseless pleasures of Society; and the vellow garment of a mendicant to the purple robes of state. In his estimation 'Heaven was superior to a Universal Empire, and the results of a Sotapatti to the dignities of the Universe.'1

Whilst, therefore, "his female bands were playing airs on musical instruments"—whilst "the beauties of the Sâkya tribes were yet hymning forth the canticles of triumph and gratulation"-amidst all the enjoyments of life and the Oriental sports of the Park; -when, too, the national festivities of the City were in the thick; and when his beloved wife had been just delivered of a son—Siddhartha departed!2 He fled as from a pursuing enemy. He escaped as from a huge bôa ready to devour him. He fled and embraced He became Buddha: and after six years of seclusion, established his religion, which is called his Dhamma, or, as we name it, Buddhism.

Whilst other Teachers declared 'religious austerity to be the height of excellence,' Buddha taught it to consist in "Nibban." He set aside animal sacrifices. He held that no penance effaced sin. In his opinion the worship of the Gods and Manes availed nothing. With the exception of these and a few other matters, however, the Philosophy which Gôtama taught was not altogether new. It agreed in most essential matters with that of the Brahmans. The Ecclesiastical discipline of the one was equally that of the otherand the sameness of doctrine Gôtama traces to a piracy by the Brahmans of the doctrines of his predecessor Kassapa, and not to a plagiarism by himself of Brahmanical doctrines.3

Be this, however, as it might, the very doctrines of Gôtama proclaim the non-existence of dhamma before his advent. the abuddhòt period which preceded his manifestation the dhamma had vanished. The agreement, therefore, between his doctrines and those of the Brahamans (if we, as we must,

Dhammapadam; end of Loka Vagga.
 See Ambatta Sutra.

² Buddhavansa.

divest him of the Inspiration to which he lays claim), leads to the irresistible conclusion that (in the language of Hodgson) Buddhism "arose out of those prior abominations which had long held the people of India in cruel vassalage to a bloated priesthood."

It is, indeed, not a little remarkable that the religion which had thus sprung out of Brahmanism soon out-numbered its Some of the causes which led to this result demand At first, doubtless, the different motives which attention. influenced conversions were those common to all countries and all nations. "They were (as remarked by Gibbon) often capricious and accidental. A dream, an omen, the report of a miracle, the example of some priest or hero, the charms of a believing wife, and above all, the fortunate event of a prayer or vow," served to create a deep and lasting im-The Buddhist annals represent Brahmans as being "indolent" at this time; 2 and we also perceive that the public mind was predisposed to a change. The character, too, of the individual who preached the new doctrine was not without its influence. Gôtama was a prince. He was descended from the renowned Sakva tribe. He was the son of a king. He had left the luxuries of a principality for the privations of mendicity. He had deserted the throne of a king for the pulpit of a monk. Nay, more, he had renounced the world to accomplish the salvation of men. humble in his deportment. He was pious in his conduct. His admonitions came with the authority of a prince, the affection of a parent, and the sincerity of a friend. Such a person was rare—such conduct uncommon. It soon attracted It was not only perceptible to the mind, it was also seen with the eye, people heard of it with their ears. It, therefore, served to them as an "outward sign." It was. indeed, a 'visible power.' It inspired them with confidence. It had a powerful influence.

The example of princes and nobles may also be mentioned.

¹ Gibbon, VI. p. 272.

² Sumangala Vilasini.

It had its due weight—Yatà raid tatà praidh: 'As is the King, so are the subjects.' This is the case in all countries, but peculiarly so with the people of the East. At the first dawn of Buddhism they had, as they still have, much in common with children. Like children they clung to their parental kings. Like children they listened to their parental advice. Above all they imitated their example, and embraced Buddhism. Other causes conspired to accelerate conversions. In the infancy of the Buddhist Church, its founder was not scrupulous as to admissions into the priesthood. He permitted the branded thief as well as 'the proclaimed criminal' to enter it.2 He drew no distinction between the male and He gave admission to the boy as well as the the female. He did not insist upon the consent of parents. slave found a retreat in the seclusion of a monastery. Those who had been affected with infectious diseases were associated with the healthy priests. The priesthood became the refuge of those who had been pursued by the fury of creditors. The enlisted soldier deserted the service of his country and entered the Panna Sâlâ. It was, however, not till large numbers had embraced the new faith, thousands had entered the priesthood; and there was therefore not the same necessity for unlimited liberality in Ecclesiastical matters, that Gôtama laid down various restrictions. It was then, and not before, that inquiry was made as to any incurable disease of the candidate for Holy Orders. It was then, and not before, that regard was had to his being 'a free man' and 'free from debt.' It was then, too, that he was required to show that he was 'not enlisted as a soldier,' and that 'he had his parents' permission to become a recluse.'3

Amongst other causes, Religious Toleration, by which the Government of Buddhist Monarchs was distinguished, was not without its salutary effect on the spread of the new religion. That, when Buddhism arose, and kings and princes had enlisted their sympathies in its cause, the pre-existing

¹ Old Pali Proverb. 2 Mahâ Vagga. 3 The Laws or the Priesthood.

Brahmans and Sectarians were not persecuted, is a fact. Every one was allowed the free choice of a creed. No one lost a single state privilege; no one was deprived of his caste; and no one was subjected to any degradation by reason of the faith he preferred. Indeed, no form of faith was made the Established Religion. Notwithstanding the predominance of Buddhism, the Brahmans, too, enjoyed the free and undisturbed exercise of their religion. It was left unmolested. Its forms of worship were not reproached. Its professors were not reviled. They were not hindered in the exercise of Even the noisy and turbulent ceremonials of their rites. their Church received not the impediments created by the modern Police Regulations of far more liberal Governments. This was not all. Though Buddhism became 'the State religion,' yet the services of the Brahmans were not less in requisition than before. They were not excluded from their wonted avocations. They lost not their civil or political power. They still continued the Prohita 1 Ministers of the Sovereign. They performed the greatest of all state ceremonies—the Consecration of Kings. They presided over all the various universities of the Empire. They were the ràja gurus of the kingdom,—the most learned physicians of the people; and the Astrological or Astronomical Professors of the state. They received the same respect which was shown to the Buddhist priests. The people were enjoined to 'bestow gifts on Brahmans as well as on Sramanas.' The Rocks of Girnar, Dhali, and Kapurdigiri proclaim to this day the religious toleration of Piyadasi, the most powerful and zealous of all Buddhist monarchs.

I have elsewhere expressed a conjecture as to the time when this state of things ceased. I shall now proceed with the subject, and with another cause for the wide extension of Buddhism—the popularity of its doctrines.

'Universal Equality' is a feeling inherent in the human mind. The first approach to a breach of this heavenly right,

¹ The domestic Chaplain, who was also a minister of state.

the slightest deviation from it, socially or politically, creates a feeling of uneasiness and even envy. No jealousy is more deep rooted or more inveterate than that which is occasioned by the deprivation of one's natural right in this respect. The feeling of the Indian classes, who were at this time bound hand and foot by a horrid system of caste by Brahmanical exclusiveness, may be easily conceived. the deep degradation of their position, except the highest class of the highest caste. All, except that class, eagerly looked for emancipation. All, therefore, except that class, hailed with no ordinary feelings of pleasure the doctrine of Universal Equality which Gotama preached. All with that single exception at first regarded the preacher as a benefactor, and his doctrine with admiration. But when those doctrines had been actually reduced to practice; when they saw the Kshetriya princes associated with Brahman converts—the Vaisya traders with the Sudra outcasts; and that all were placed upon the same level, subject to the same laws and in the enjoyment of the same privileges, the people received their benefactor with love, and made him an object of superstitious admiration. No wonder, then, that his religion was soon embraced by millions.

The last, though not the least cause which led to conversions was the mildness of Gôtama's dhamma; and this leads to the second head of my discourse.

II.—THE DOCTRINES OF BUDDHISM.

But before I proceed to give you a popular account of them, permit me to say a few words against a commonly received error—that Buddhism sanctions *Idol worship*. It is, indeed, remarkable that no religion in the world, that we are aware of, originated in the worship of idols. The Greeks, it is believed, at first worshipped 'an invisible God.' The ancient Persians 'thought it impious to exhibit the Creator under a human form.' The Jews originally had "no other Gods" but Jehovah, whom they were interdicted from repre-

senting by "any graven image, or the likeness of any thing." The primary doctrine of Brahmanism was "the unity of God," "whom they worshipped without a symbol." Buddhism, too, gave no sanction to idol worship. Its introduction was long after the death of Gôtama. In all countries, and amongst all nations, it originated from a desire to transfer from the mental to the natural eyes the sight of the object of adoration.

Man wants more than abstraction. He understands not mere verbiage, without an image to represent the idea conveyed by language. He desires (in the language of Mahindu) 'to have an object whom he could salute, before whom he could prostrate himself, at whose presence he could rise, and to whom he could pay reverent attention.'

It is in the very nature of man to long for a leader, and to set up a chief. The more ignorant the community, the greater is the desire manifested in this respect. As a child lives in the trust of that security which parental protection affords, so does the ignorant man look for the prop and support of a leader. Hence, the monarchical is the form of government which meets with general approbation. author of our being saw this, when He promised "to dwell among the children of Israel," and "went before them by day in a pillar of cloud, and by night in a pillar of fire," and when, too, He promised His presence "whenever two or three meet in His name." This inherent feeling of dependence on a higher being is evidenced by the fact that the Israelites, treated as they were by the Almighty, could not bear the prolonged absence of their leader, and longed for "gods which should go before them." In our own Island, after the Singhalese had deposed their King, and Ceylon had been placed under the Sovereign of England, whom they never saw, their uneasiness was great indeed. They wanted some one to be their leader, and a small section of misguided Kandians set up a thief as their king.1 They preferred a

¹ See Blue Books of Ceylon for 1850.

vagabond whom they saw, to the Queen of England, or her representative, whom they had never seen. This feeling is, however, not confined to the State. It equally extends to the Church. The human mind yearns after some "visible and tangible object of worship." It loves to retain some relic of those whom it adores. As a mother would often retain a lock of hair of a deceased child, or a lover preserve as a token of remembrance some little trinket of her who inspired him with love, so the votaries of deities, the enthusiastic followers of religious teachers, upon the reflection that the object of their worship was no more and could not be seen, have "substituted visible for invisible objects." Thus the Greeks created innumerable gods and goddesses. The Persians transferred their worship from 'the supreme mind' to the 'lamp of day.' The Brahmans have formed 330,000,0001 deities, around whom they could burn incense. The Jews 'fell down and worshipped a molten calf.' Even into the churches of Jehovah the 'jealous God,' did His followers introduce idols of the Virgin Mother, and the representatives of Saints. Nor were the Buddhists an exception to the rule. Upon the death of the Sage, his followers preserved his bones and teeth. This they did at first from no other feeling than that which is common in the human breast-chittan pasddessanti-'to cause the mind to be composed.'2 All Buddhist countries vied with each other in the collection of the Relics. A lock of his hair and his givatta 3 were enshrined at Mahi-Asôka built 84,000 monuments embodying the yangana. sacred relics. It was these that Mahindó characterized as Buddha himself, when he said, Mahâ ràjà, our divine teacher has long been out of our sight; for, said he, 'whenever his sacred relics are seen our vanquisher himself is seen.'4 What was seen with the eye was the better fixed in the mind. The outward and visible signs were tokens of an inward and intellectual idea of the object of adoration.

¹ Elphinstone's India, I. p. 165.

³ Collar-bone.

Dipâvansa.
 Mahâvansa.

But Buddhism does not recognize Image-worship. though the Chinese and Ceylon Buddhists have a legend to the effect that whilst Gôtama was alive, a Pilime statue of that Sage was made by the orders of the King of Kòsala; and although the Tibetan annals speak of Gôtama having expatiated upon the advantages arising from laying up his image; and although Divya Avadana of the Nipal collection gives a story as to Gôtama's having recommended Bumbi Sàra to send a portrait of the Sage to Rudrayana, King of Ròruka; yet all this is regarded by the intelligent portion of the Buddhists in Ceylon as unfounded on fact; and therefore an invention of later times. A careful examination of Buddhist doctrines furnishes us with no authority at all for image worship; all that Gôtama left behind, as a substitute for himself after death, being his own doctrines the dhamma. His words were, 'Anando, let the Dhamma and Vinaya, which have been propounded to and impressed on thee by me, stand after my demise in the place of thy Teacher.'3 Yet the prevalence of image worship is great indeed in Buddhistical When it was first introduced among the Buddcountries. hists of India and Ceylon does not clearly appear, but from the conduct of Asôka, who recognizes nothing of the kind in his Pillar Inscriptions, we may conclude that image worship was an innovation introduced at a period later than the date The earliest mention of images in of the Inscriptions. Ceylon is in the Mihintali Inscription of 241 A.D., which speaks of "image houses." Two hundred years afterwards, 410 A.D., Fá Hian saw "an image of blue Jasper in the Temple at Anuradhapura." There is, however, much reason to believe that the images which were introduced into the Buddhist temples had not been originally intended for worship, any more than the statues of kings which were anciently placed side by side with the idols of Buddha and the devas. Speaking of these statues, says Colonel Forbes,

As. Res., xx. p. 476.
 Life in Ancient India, p. 272.
 Sumangala Vilasini; See B. J. vol. vi. p. 512.

'In the Mahâ râja Vihâra there are upwards of fifty figures of Buddha, most of them larger than life; also a statue of each of the devas, Saman, Vishnu, Nâta, and the devì Pattani, and of two kings Valanganbahu and Kirti Nisanga.'

The period, then, at which the pre-existing idols became objects of worship was probably the time when Brahmanical rites became blended with those of the Buddhist Church—when she came to recognize the Samyak Dristi gods of the Hindu Pantheon—when she built temples for the worship of Vishnu—when she built an idol of him whom she considered "a supporting deity" of Gôtama—and when she commenced to make offerings to his idol, which stood alongside of Buddha.

As idol worship is conducted in honour of Buddha, and upon the supposition that it confers spiritual benefit, so likewise his doctrines are recited for the same end, and with a view also to avert temporal dangers. But there is no more authority for the last than for the first. The Pâritta, or the use of exorcism, is frequently resorted to, as a protection against apprehended danger from disease, or demoniac influences; but upon a careful examination of the discourses of Gôtama, it would seem to have been only assented to, but not enjoined, as a means for placating the demons. say, although the study and frequent repetition of his discourses were recommended in place of himself 'as the teacher,' yet it does not appear that Gôtama believed any temporal benefit could be achieved by "exorcism," beyond imparting religious consolation. And the extent to which it was authorized may be gathered from the Páritta ceremony itself. When Gôtama was dwelling on Gijjakuta, and Wessavana, the king of the Yakkhas, once called on the Sage; the former, in course of conversation, alluded to the aversion of the Yakkha races to Puddha. The cause of it is stated to have been the inhibition of Buddha against their own 'malpractices, such as life-slaughter, theft, lewdness, lying, and drunkenness.' From this aversion, which in savage tribes was tantamount to hate, the followers of Gôtama, as well as

the jungle Ascetic, suffered in various ways. Wesavanna, the king of the Yakkhas, who was an admirer of the Sage, was therefore desircus of averting these dangers from his own subjects. He wished to protect and defend the priests in their 'solitary retirements, free from noise and clamour.' He was anxious to keep them from harm's ways. He purposed to introduce peace into their cells. To effect all this it was necessary 'to placate the demons;' and this, again, could only be effected by an authoritative edict of his own. That edict is contained in the Atánátiya. It commenced with the It alluded to Gôtama's virtues of Gôtama's predecessors. own beneficence. It recounted the honours and worship which he had exacted from devas and men; and from Wesavanna himself. It enjoined the priest to learn and recite the hymns in which the above was recited. It declared the privileges of those who used it. It enjoined the demons "not even to approach with an evil design" a person who had recited the Páritta. It imposed a penalty for a breach of this command. The law of the king was thus made perfectly binding on his subjects. It was delivered; and Gôtama "consented to it by his silence."

This, it is apprehended, was the origin of the Paritta ceremony. To the Atanatiya have, however, been added, in course of time, various other discourses of Buddha, which had the tendency to restore peace and quiet to the sufferers, and to give "religious consolations" to the diseased. This appears from the discourses themselves, which contain no declaration of any 'temporal benefit.' Take the Kassapa Bojjhanga as an example. Kassapa was grievously ill, and Gôtama visited him in his cave, and found him 'without ease and repose.' The Sage preached on contemplation, ascertainment of the truth, perseverance, contentment, placidity, tranquillity, and equanimity. And these 'seven meetions of moral science' he recited, not as a direct antidot against the ills of the flesh, but as a palliative to the sufferings of the mind, and as a sine qua non "for the attainment of knowledge, wisdom, and deliverance from transmigration." The priest recovered; but it is not stated he did so by the direct influence of he admonition. Such are the discourses added to Atánatiya, which form the Hymns usually sung to "the praise and glory" of Buddha, and to secure a deliverance from temporal ailments. Connected with the subject in hand, a few words on the origin of Chèteyas or Thupas may not be uninteresting:—

The Parinibban Suttan states that they "originated" upon the death of Gôtama, when "eight Thupas were built over the corporeal relics, a ninth over the Kumbhan, and a tenth over the charcoal of his funeral pile." And it would seem from the same Suttan that Chètiyàni existed in several parts of the Majjhima desa even during the lifetime of Gôtama. The Atthakathà explains that the Chètayàni were not "Buddhistical shrines," but Yakkhattànàni 'erections for demon worship.' That they partook of the nature of both Temple and Thupa may be inferred from the fact that whilst they were monuments of worship, they served also as rest-houses for the weary traveller. Gôtama himself repaired to the Chèpala Chèteya for rest, and he there expatiated on its splendour as well as that of many others.2 It was, doubtless, from a contemplation of the busy throng of religions Enthusiasts who crowded these monuments of worship, that Gôtama gave his sanction for the erection of the thûpas over his own relics, and those of his disciples. Yet from the fact of "Universal Monarchs" being placed in the same category with Buddha and his Sàvakas, it would seem that the sage had no other object save that which we have for building places for divine worship-to make men religious.

Gôtama's words were: Tattha yé màlan và gandhan và vaṇṇakan và àròpessanti abhivàdessanti và chittan và pasàdessanti tesàn tan bhavissati dìgha-rattan hitàya sukhàya.... Ayan tassa Bhagavato arahatò sammà sambuddhassa thùpò—ti Ananda bahujanó chittan pasadenti tè tattha chittan pasàdetvà kàyassa bhédà param maranà sugatim, saggan lòkan uppajjanti—M.P.S. v. 26, 27.

'If in respect of thupas any should set up flowers, scents,

¹ See Rhys Davids's 'Buddhist Suttas,' p. 135.

² ibid. p. 40.

or embellishments, or should worship (them), or should (by such means) cause their minds to be purified, such acts will conduce to their well-being and happiness. . . . Ananda, many thinking "that this is thùpa of the adorable, the sanctified, the omniscient, supreme Buddha," compose their minds; and when they have caused their minds-to be cleansed, they, upon the dissolution of the body after death, are born in a glorious heavenly world."

I now return to the doctrines of Buddhism, or the religion of Gôtama. It is defined by himself to mean "the path of immortality."2 It acknowledges man's sinful nature-represents him as altogether sinful, and his heart 'deceitful' and 'desperately wicked.' It enjoins the necessity of regeneration, of subjugating the evil passions, and a the change of the heart. It says in plain words, that neither her extraction from the noblest of progenitors, nor the innuence of education, will secure him salvation. It admonishes him to abstain from covetousness. It warns him against "the cares of life," to the neglect of religion; against pride and "self-righteousness, which make a god of himself;" and against evil-speaking, lying, slandering, and unprofitable conversation. It inculcates all the virtues which ennoble the soul: patience, forbearance, forgiveness, charity, chastity, humility, gratitude, obedience, etc., etc. And these it sums up in one Golden rule which it enacts, 'Reverence to Parents, Charity to the Poor, Humanity to Animals, and Love towards all Mankind.'

Whilst we are thus enabled to hold up some of its doctrines to the admiration of the world, it must, however, be borne in mind that the religion which has "immortality" for its end, seeks not the eternal joys of heaven, but the immolation of life,—the cessation from existence as "no good equal to it"—and the extinction of being as "the best thing;" and that the observance of religion or brahmacha-

¹ Pasadessanti, 'cause to be purified or cleansed,' or to 'bring about a religious turn of mind'

Dhammapada—Appamàda Vagga, § 1.
 See Attanagalu Vansa, Pali Version.

⁴ Dhammapada; Sukha-Vagga-

riyâ¹ is not "perfect freedom," but a life of asceticism, fettered by restraints of no ordinary hardship. Buddhism, indeed, ignores what we call the "soul." It denies the existence of a creator. It knows of no being who may be called Almighty. According to its teachings, all the elements of existence are dissolved at death; and yet life transmigrates! The greatest happiness is therefore devised to be Nirváná.

Upon each of these points I purpose to say a few words; and

- 1. Buddhism denies anything like the Brahman àtman, or own-self, or paramatman, 'eternal-self,' or what we call 'the soul.' It forbids us to say "I am," or "this is I." Man is composed of five khandas—'organized body,' 'sensation,' 'perception,' 'discrimination' (including all the powers of reasoning), and 'consciousness.' And it cannot be predicated of any of these, or of their attributes the 12 ayatanâni, which are 'the eye and the objects' of sight, the ear and sound, nose and smell, the tongue and flavour, the body and touch; 'mind or power of thought' and 'objects of thought'2 -that they constitute 'ego.' Of each of the above, Gôtama teaches—'I am not this'—'this is not my soul'—na m'eso attà'--'This is not a soul to me.' It is a nonentity. His words are: "Priests, it should be distinctly known as a fact, that the rûpa or perceptible body is transient,—that that which is impermanent is (full of) sorrow—that that which is sorrow is not the (self) soul; that any thing which is not the self is 'not mine.' 'It is not ego'—'it is not my soul.'3 It is simply 'existence' or life."
- 2. Life, according to Buddhism, had no intelligent Creator. It was the result of chance—not of design. It was the consequence of Kamma, 'good or evil merit,' produced by avidyâ or 'ignorance.'4. Here the creator is not an active agent. He represents nothing corporeal or spiritual. It is an abstract

See Mahavagga.
 See the Rev. D. J. Gogerly's Translation in the "Friend," vol. ii. p. 87, et seq.

^{4 &}quot;Ceylon Friend," April, 1830.

quality, without itself a cause or Creator. One abstraction produces another abstraction. The last, a third; and so onuntil we have 'life,' this form of human existence. Gôtama himself, according to a beautiful figure of speech in the Institutes of Manu, compares man to a 'mansion;' and designates 'the first cause' by the name of gahâ-kâraka,2 or 'house-builder.' But he exults with joy that the creature has risen above the Creator; and that the architect had no longer the power to build for him another house! creature is thus not responsible to the "First cause," which lays down no laws for his guidance, and is unable to do anything either for good or for evil. The Creator, as we have seen, does not control life's existence. Indeed, he bears no more relation to man than the leaf does to the butterfly which leaves it after various changes. The creature, therefore, is the Lord over his own life. It was in accordance with such doctrines that Sirisangabô, one of our ancient monarchs, exclaimed in offering his head as a propitiation, 'I am the Lord over my own body!'3

3. Thus, there is no Supreme being who may be called Almighty. True it is that Gôtama is styled 'the greatest of all beings;' but his own conduct and doctrines show that he was not omnipotent.

It is stated in the Parinibban Suttan of the Buddhistical

¹ Institutes, cap. vi. §§ 76, 77.
² 'Through transmigrations of numerous births have I run, not discovering, (though) seeking the house-builder: birth again-and-again [is] sorrow. O house-builder! thou art seen. Thou shalt not again build a house [for me]. All thy ribs are broken [by me]. The apex of the house is destroyed. [My] mind is inclined to nibban. [It] has arrived at the extinction of desire.'

Note.—It may be remarked that anekajūti sansāran, which is in the accusative, should be treated as a noun in the vocative, owing to its connection with an intransitive verb. Sandhivissan, 'I will run,' is in the bhavissanti or 'future tense,' and not conditional. Owing, however, to a Rule by which the future takes an ajjatani or a past signification [see Pânini, iii. 2, 112; also Ballantyne's Laghu kaumudi, p. 314, No. 799], both Mr. Turner and Mr. Hardy have correctly rendered this into the ajjatani, in which sense the Commentator interprets it, sansārin or apara paran anuvicharin.' 'My mind is inclined to nibban' is, as I conceive, the nearest meaning which can be assigned to the words, 'the mind has attained [to the knowledge of] destruction.' See Mr. Fausböll's remarks on these difficult verses in his Dhamma pudan, p. 320; and the text at p. 28 of the same work. p. 28 of the same work.
 Saka sarirassa ahamèva—Attanagaluvansa.

annals that a being like Buddha who had attained to the sanctification of the four iddhipada, may live any period of time, even a kappa, if he should desire it. But I need not tell you that this is a myth. When in "fourscore years" Gôtama's age had "attained the fullest maturity," and death stared him in the face, he was importuned by Ananda, his favourite disciple, "Lord Bagawa, vouchsafe to live a kappa." 1

This was, however, an impossibility. Gôtama knew this; and it is, indeed, melancholy to observe the quibble to which he resorts. He answers: "Afflict me not with unavailing importunity." Ananda could not believe his own senses, for what he had now heard militated against his master's doctrines of a previous day; and the former in language of remonstrance addressed Gôtama: "Lord, from thyself have I heard, and by thyself have I been taught, that to whomsoever is vouchsafed the sanctification of the four iddhipada, he may live a kappa; and to thee, Tathâgato, is vouchsafed that great power."

The Sage could not fail to perceive the force of Ananda's speech, not to call it accusation. He was driven to the necessity of making a reply; and he had no alternative but to resort to the paltry quibble of preferring a counter-charge against his accuser—viz. that 'he had failed in his duty to make the request when the announcement of Gôtama's approaching dissolution was originally made.' What signified that he was late? If it was a proper request, and he had the power to grant it, the time at which it was made was of no consequence, and could by no means affect the granting of the application.

But, according to the very doctrines of Buddhism, not only is it not true that a timely application from Ananda would have enabled him to prolong his life even to the extent of a kappa; but it is also not true that any being had the power to do so. Buddhism recognizes predestination; and it is made to appear in the Parinibban Suttan that 'the ap-

¹ Parinibban Suttan.

proaching dissolution of Gôtama being irrevocably fixed, Mâra prevented Ananda from preferring his request.' Now, predestination is inconsistent with the almighty power here laid claim to. Predestination pre-supposes the absence of power. It takes away volition. It restricts action. It circumscribes power. It renders "importunity unavailing." "Gôtama's appointed time had come." He himself had declared it at the close of his probational meditation. He himself had stated that at the particular period of his manifestation, 'the term human existence was one hundred years,' and that it appeared to be the proper age for his advent.¹ He could not, therefore, add a minute to his term of existence. For, he was not Almighty.

This was so plain and clear, that the bigotted advocates of Buddhism have given up the line of defence adopted by the Sage himself, and have resorted to a still more miserable quibble of supporting his statement upon verbal grounds. Both Någasena in the Milindappanna, and Moggalliputta Tissa, the holder of the last convocation, in one of his Vådas, states, that when Gôtama declared the power of one who had attained the four iddhipada to live a kappa, or any part of a kappa, he only meant, in the ordinary acceptation of "kappa," -"the ordinary age of man, which was 100 years." It is, indeed, true that kappa means "age," or "the period of existence."2 But this is not its only meaning. Nor is this its ordinary acceptation. It also means an immense period of time during which the world itself lasts in each of its regenerations. Now, every one except an idiot, Nagasena, and Moggalliputta Tissa, could perceive at a glance that Gôtama, in stating the superior power of one who had attained the four iddhipada, did not refer to the inherent quality of humanity, the ordinary age of man, but alluded to what ordinarily man did not possess—a power to prolong life to the extent of a kappa. If, therefore, this meant "any period of time within the age usually allotted to men"-which, however, Ananda himself clearly ignores by his reiterated appli-

¹ Buddhavansa. ² Gogerly: Wilson and Spiers.

cation, and Gôtama as clearly by his reply—that Sage laid down an absurdity. He declared what every idiot knew. He pronounced that, to be the reward of a particular kind of sanctity, which was simply an inherent quality of every man, however sinful. If, again, such was the meaning which Gôtama intended to convey, nothing could have been easier than to silence Ananda at once. For, at the time he importuned Gôtama to live a kappa or half of a kappa, Gôtama had, in point of fact, lived a much longer period than half of man's age.

- 4. From this digression I return to the subject, and to the Ontology of Buddhism. Although hells without number have, without a Creator, sprung up for the punishment of the wicked, yet it is not the sinner who is punished in them. Although Buddha has often declared his own identity with certain characters in the Jâtakas; 1 yet all this is not supported by his doctrines. According to those doctrines, the nama and rupa which constitute this life are not identical with the nama and rupa of the life hereafter. 2 One being therefore suffers for another. One's sins are visited upon another. The sinner and the sufferer are not therefore identical. 'If there is a dissolution of all the elements of existence at death, it follows that there is no hereafter, and no future world to that existence.'3
- 5. Yet the doctrine of Buddhism is, that life transmigrates; and that everything changes constantly from man to beast, from beast to fowl, and from fowl to creeping things. There is therefore an eternal cycle of existence. The law of merits and demerits alone causes the degree of happiness or misery of all beings. This also is full of uncertainty. Though merits are said to be more powerful than demerits; and however abundantly a being may perform meritorious

¹ e.g. At the close of Appanaka Jataka, Puddha says:—"The former unwise merchant and his company are the present Dêwadatta and his disciples; and I was then the wise merchant."

<sup>Milindappanna.
Hardy's Eastern Monachism, p. 396.</sup>

deeds, yet upon his worldly dissolution he can have no hope of happiness in an after-birth; for the demerits of a former existence might outweigh the good deeds of this life. He dies, therefore, "without hope," and, as we have already said, "without God."

Now, as already remarked, no religion has worked so great a revolution-no creed has had so many votaries-no faith has lasted so long a period, as Buddhism. Yet no religion is calculated to create a greater despondency in the human mind than Buddhism. Like the religion of the Christian, Buddhism may, perhaps, be "the bond of charity," "the curb of evil passions," "the teacher of morality;" but, decidedly, it is not "the consolation of the wretched," the support of the timid," and "the hope of the dving." There is nothing in it to cheer "the weary and the heavy-laden." There is nothing to give a hope to the guilty. There is nothing to encourage the penitent sinner. No encouraging words, such as "Him that cometh to me I will in no wise cast out," are to be found in the Pitakattava. No promise of forgiveness gives the Buddhist a hope of salvation. 'knock, and it shall be opened" welcome greets his ear. the contrary, everything in the Buddhist Bible is calculated to alarm him. This in the language of Buddhism is indeed a state of things "full of evil, misery, and pain." Yes,—to one who has no notion of an eternal existence hereafter to whom God hath not revealed by His Holy Spirit the unspeakable joys of heaven, Life is a dreary waste; existence is devoid of those fascinations which the Christian alone feels; and heaven is not a place of "rest," but a temporary habitation of enjoyment. In vain, therefore, are the efforts of a Missionary of the Cross to win the souls of the Buddhists by presenting before him scenes of heavenly bliss. Talk to him of 'that holy calm'—'that sweet repose'—'the Cherubim and the Seraphim that continually do cry, Holy, holy, Lord God of Sabaoth'—of the throngs of lovely angels, who bow "towards either throne"- with a shout

Loud as from numbers without number, sweet As from blest voices, uttering joy.'

Speak to him of 'Crowns of glory' 'inwove with amarant and gold'-of 'the hallelujahs of the glorified'-'the troops of sister spirits arrayed in the purest white'-of 'the ceaseless songs of sweet music.' Set before him in the most glowing language of poetry 'the palms of conquest'--'the beatific vision' and 'beatitude past utterance.' Picture to his mind's eye 'the sense of new joy ineffable diffused-love without end, and without measure grace'-'the near communion with God,' and the 'bright effluence of bright essence increate'—all appear to him infected with blemish, imperfection, and impermanence—all appears to him "foolishness;" ave, "the baseless fabric of a vision which leaves no wrack behind!" All heavenly to him is all what earthly is to the inspired Preacher, "vanity and vexation of spirit"-and why? Simply because Heaven to the Buddhist is not what it is to the Christian-

'The end of care, the end of pains.'

Existence in the eye of Buddhism is nothing but misery. It is connected with disease, decay, and death. It is subject to 'grief, wailing, pain, anguish, despair, and disappointment.' It resembles a blazing fire which dazzles the eye, but torments us by its effects. There is nothing real or permanent in the whole universe. "Everything perishes."

6. Nothing then remained to be devised as a deliverance from this evil but the destruction of existence itself. This is what the Buddhists call *Nirwana*.

So far as I can understand this abstruse doctrine, it is not Absorption. Viewed in every light in which the subject may be considered, and tested by all the definitions and arguments contained in the Canonical works on Buddhism, Nibban is (to use an expression of Professor Max Müller) Nihilism, the annihilation of existence, the same as the extinction of fire. That such is the fact appears also from the pragna paramita, and the Metaphysics of Kasyapa. It is, moreover, proved by the very nicknames which the Brahmans apply to their Buddhist opponents, viz. Nastikas—'those who maintain destruction or nihilism;' and Sunyaradins—'those who maintain that there is a universal void.'

A difference of opinion exists, and that difference has arisen from the mode of teaching adopted by Buddhists, and the figures of speech contained in Buddhist works. As "nothing" or Nihilism is said to be a paradise or immortality, and he who denies a deity is himself deified,—Nibban, which has no locality, is compared to a "City." From a belief that the subject is not easily comprehended, it is said 'none could perceive it except a sanctified Arahanta.' When people denied the truth of this doctrine, it was necessary to make a strong affirmation to the effect that 'Nirwana is.' These are, indeed, expressions which, without being retracted or explained, compelled even Nagasena to declare 'the doctrine of Nibban was beyond all computation a mystery.'

Such briefly are the most important of the doctrines of Buddhism. And we shall now turn to the remaining point of inquiry:—

III.—WHAT ARE ITS PROSPECTS?

There are, indeed, good grounds for believing that Buddhism will, at no very distant period, disappear from this There is, moreover, a hope for Ceylon, which, alas! we have not for India. The two countries are, in this respect, at least, differently circumstanced; and the difference is too wide to expect for both the same results from missionary labours, or to predict the same period of time for their conversion to Christianity. The hope for Ceylon arises from various considerations; and we shall here notice the influence of Caste on religion. It is a fact that the Singhalese are not so much attached to the system of Castes as their neighbours on the Continent of India. Caste exists in Ceylon, but with greater force in India. Here it is a mere Custom, there a part of the Hindu national Institutes. Here it is more political than religious, there more religious than political. Here no man loses his Caste by the adoption of a new faith—there the Brahman becomes an utter outcast

¹ There is much doubt in the world relative to Nirwana.—Milindapprasna.

by changing his creed. Though demurred to at first in a well-known Hall by the higher classes of the Singhalese, we nevertheless find all castes and classes meeting together in the jury box with the greatest harmony. All alike sit on the same form in our Christian Churches; and all alike partake of the same cup, the wine that is distributed at the Lord's Supper. Wellales now follow different trades, which were anciently restricted to the lower orders; and occasionally marriages take place between persons of different castes. Caste is thus losing its iron grasp on the affections of the Singhalese. Although in many parts of the Island these changes take place unperceived and unreflected on by the people, yet in others, where they are fully alive to the innovations which affect their social condition, have we frequently heard the exclamation, "This is not surprising-it must take place—Buddha himself has declared it." Yes, that great sage, like Mahomet, with a foresight and penetration of mind which deserve commendation, predicted the change: the abolition of caste. His words were, "at a distant period" (and now more than twenty-four centuries have elapsed from the date of the prediction) "princes will confer offices on mean people. The nobles will have no means of support. They will therefore give their children in marriage to the mean; and thus confusion of castes and classes will be the result. The low will become high, and the high low, and the nobles will be dependent upon the mean!"1

Combined with this state of things, which affords a help to Christianity, is the absence in the Buddhist mind of that warmth and fervour in behalf of his faith which exist in the votaries of other religions. The Buddhist looks upon Christianity without jealousy—nay, more, there is a disposition on his part to conform to the religion of the Bible along with the faith of his forefathers. Neither is this feeling a creature of modern and enlightened times. So far back as the age of the great Asôka, the liberal monarch of Asia,

¹ Saddharmaratnâkara.

we find that far from any hostility being shown to other religions, Buddhists actually honoured them. Thus, in one of the inscriptions of that Buddhist sovereign, we find it declared that 'there are circumstances where the religion of others ought to be honoured, and in acting thus a man fortifies his own faith, and assists the faith of others. He who acts otherwise diminishes his own faith and hurts the faith of others.'

Among the many helps to conversions to Christianity in this Island is the great desire manifested among the Singhalese to be instructed in European science and literature.

Now, Buddhism mingles religion with science. The law of earthquakes is taught in the same books which contain admonitions for the salvation of man. The means for the attainment of Nibban are pointed out by the same teacher. who propounds that eclipses are caused by the monsters Rahu and Khetu. The doctrine of the earth being a firm flat, around Mount Meru, and twice seven circles of mountains and seas, rests upon the authority which inculcates Silan as the highest religious duty. The same dhamma which teaches that man's soul is a nonentity teaches also that the earth rests on water, water on wind, and the wind on air. religious propositions are again so interwoven with the physical that we cannot well sever the one from the other. The overthrow of one must therefore affect the stability of the other. If one can be disproved, the other will share in that result. Many have already detected the errors in the Buddhist works. Already there are many who are converts to the European doctrine of 'the rotundity of the earth;' and the native mind is even now prepared to reject the absurdities upon this point in the legends of Gôtama. Already many Buddhists have rejected some books which their forefathers regarded as works of authority—already there are men who, though not Christians, yet disbelieve that the hollow on Adam's Peak was an impression left by Gôtama;

¹ Girnar Inscrip. in Bl. A.S. Journal.

and, already they are impressed with the impropriety of *Idolworship*; and even orthodox Buddhists doubt that it was sanctioned by Buddha.

The English schoolmaster is abroad. The village Pansals, in which were hitherto congregated the youth of the surrounding hamlets, are deserted. The priesthood are thus deprived of their Ebittayas, those "bit-boys" who once formed their proud retinue. But the children, on the other hand, are better educated in Mission Schools, where, in addition to elementary instruction, they learn the Word of God.

Thus it cannot be doubted that, with the growth of intelligence, and the increase of scientific knowledge, the Singhalese will, ere long, perceive the errors of Buddhism; and that the detection of one error will lead to the discovery of another, and another, until at last the people will not only be constrained, but prepared in all soberness, to adopt the religion of the Bible.

A powerful means by which Buddhism is failing in the stand it had originally made in this Island is the discouragement which is offered to the native Pundits. They do not, under the British Government, derive any of the benefits or enjoy the privileges which were conferred on them in a byegone day. The priesthood, from want of adherents to their faith, are more occupied with secular concerns than with the study of their scriptures. The books, too, are getting very scarce, and copyists still more so. "This process of decay," says Mr. Hardy, "is already apparent in Ceylon. There being no outward stimulus to exertion, the priests exhibit no enthusiasm of study, and many of them are unable to read at all"—I believe he meant the Pali works of Buddhism.

Another and yet more important cause affecting the state and prospects of Buddhism is the dissemination of Christianity through the agency of the missionary. Many who were Buddhists when they first entered the Mission Schools

¹ Eastern Monachism, p. 366.

have become convinced, in the course of their education, of the errors of their religion, and of the truth of the Gospel. and have consequently abandoned their early faith and are now employed in the work of the missions, teaching their convictions to others, and preaching the Word of God. That same zealous missionary from whom I have just quoted says, and says it conscientiously and correctly—"I see before me looming in the distance a glorious vision, in which the lands of the East are presented in majesty—happy, holy, and free." Indeed, there is a ray of light which will ere long burst into full day. Christianity is planted in the households of the Singhalese and in the hearts of the people. Its influence, though silently progressive, is yet felt in our everyday intercourse with our countrymen. The success of the missionary may be traced in the progressive change in the Singhalese mind.

Already there are thousands of Christians, true Christians, of all denominations, whether Roman Catholics or Protestants, who are not ashamed, as are the Hindus of Asia, to take up the cross of Jesus, and amidst their bigotted clansmen, to avow their belief in Him who for our sakes came down as the son of a carpenter, and had for His associates the poor fishermen of Galilee. But "however scanty may be the outward evidence of actual conversions," as remarked by Sir Emerson Tennent, "there are symptoms perceptible which afford good grounds of hope for the future."

Gôtama himself, with a penetrating mind and a capacious intellect, which take in not only the subtle philosophy of his creed, but what we are here called upon to admire the most, all the encouraging signs of the passing times, and the hopeless prospects of the future, predicted the downfall of Buddhism. He has given five signal epochs for the ascertainment of the declension of his doctrines. They are the following: The first, when the means by which the paths to Nirwana are attained, will be lost; the second, when the observance

¹ Hardy on Buddhism, p. xiii.

of the precepts by the priesthood will be neglected; the third, when the greater part of the doctrinal writings, together with the Pali language in which they are written, will disappear; the fourth, when the priests will continue to degenerate, that is to say, they will begin to take life, and to plough and sow, and to walk about with a strip of cloth on their arms as a mark of their order; and the fifth, when Buddha's relics will disappear altogether.1 For the consummation of all this, Gôtama has given the same period of time which God in his mercy has assigned for the manifestation of the Saviour-'forty centuries or 40002 years.' Bold assertions! Extravagant hope! Yet it is not a little remarkable that more than half of this period has already elapsed. Two thousand four hundred and forty-nine years may seem to us earthly mortals, whose 'days' are 'as a shadow that passeth away,' or, 'as it were, a span long,' an immense long period of time. Yet in the sight of Him 'a thousand years are but as yesterday,' that which is 'past' is 'as a watch in the night.' He allowed 4000 years to pass before he produced "the seed of the woman" to "bruise the serpent's head." It was, nevertheless, "in the fullness of Twenty-three centuries, then, during which Buddhism has flourished, may not be a matter for surprise. "Buddhism, like all the ancient religions of the world, may have but served to prepare the way of Christ by helping, through its very errors, to strengthen and to deepen the ineradicable yearnings of the human heart after the truth of God."³ Of the predicted time, however, a period of nearly seventeen centuries still remains; and although the Buddhist books have not been lost, and the Pali language (which will form the subject of my next lecture) is still in a high state of cultivation, it is, nevertheless, certain that the extinction of Buddhism will take place before the remainder of the term

¹ Saddhamaratnâkara.

<sup>Some of the Ceylon books represent this as 5000. But it is supposed to be a mistake.
Prof. Max Müller's Sanscrit Lit. p. 32.</sup>

shall have been added to the bygone period. And, with the signs of the times to which I have briefly adverted, we may reasonably anticipate the speedy arrival of that time when 'the kingdoms of this world shall become the kingdoms of our Lord and of his Christ;' when Jesus with his saints shall commence his reign of a 'thousand years;' when the nations will worship the one Jehovah; and when 'the earth shall be filled with the knowledge of the glory of the Lord as the waters cover the sea.'

LECTURE SECOND.

Delivered in the Hall of the Colombo Academy,

On the 29th November, 1861.

THE BUDDHIST SCRIPTURES AND THEIR LANGUAGE,
THE PALL.

FORTY-FIVE years before 'the conventional era' of the Singhalese did Gôtama proclaim the tenets of Buddhism. That religion, which was decidedly a modification of Brahmanism-devoid of its mystery, inhumanity, intolerance, and exclusiveness, and founded by a Kshatriya prince-was not long before it spread amongst the people, and became the State creed of the Majjhima desa. Kings were amongst his first disciples; thousands of Brahmans and fire-worshippers were reckoned amongst his votaries; and nobles, merchants, and itinerant traders formed his most attentive congregations.1 Patronized by princes, supported by nobles, and encouraged by the State-the Sâkya fraternity soon increased in numbers, enjoyed a much larger share of freedom than other denominations of ascetics, and exercised far greater privileges than even the Brahmans or the laymen of the realm.2

With such adventitious aid, Gôtama's doctrines were speedily disseminated far and wide. They went early into

See Papanchasudaniya, vol. iii. p. 482. Here as elsewhere the references are to the writer's own MSS.
 Mahâ Vagga of the Vinaya Pitaka.

Pachchanta beyond the confines of the Majjhima desa. Wherever they went caravan-keepers carried the glad tidings of the new Teacher; merchants enlarged upon his virtues; and itinerant traders related his doctrines. Great was the joy of those who were brought to the knowledge of the word. "Sàdhu!" "Sàdhu!" exclaimed all who had heard it. Those who had come under its influence lost no time in following the sage. Kings deserted their thrones, governors and chieftains their high trusts, nobles and ministers their avocations; and all their happy homes, wives and childrenfor the yellow robe of the Sakya 'mendicant'—bhikkhus.2 Thus, at no distant period from their first promulgation, the dhamma became the household words of the people, the theme of the traveller, and the topic of epistolary correspondence between princes.

Although it is stated in the Buddhavansa that Gôtama, prompted by 'a misgiving common to all Buddhas,' was at first 'reluctant to proclaim the dhamma,' yet there seems to be no foundation for this assertion. For, as it is also stated, "he was destined to save multitudes." He was essentially Satta 'the teacher.' His peculiar vocation was to convert. No part of his career contradicts the belief that he was most solicitous for the dissemination of his dhamma. His whole life, after he had become Buddha, was devoted to its proclamation, its elucidation, and its exaltation. Seeing that 'the harvest was great, but that the labourers were few,' he directed that 'no two priests should take the same road.'4 As an encouragement to the first missionaries he declared that there were beings whose love for religion was not wholly extinguished; that their natural reluctance to hear the dhamma would vanish; and that there were others who could master it.5

4 Maha Vagga, lib. 1, p. kr.

This word is used to express 'foreign regions,' the boundaries of which are given in the Mahû Vagga Chammakkandaka Sec.
 Atthakathâ of Sanyutta Nikâya.
 Buddhistical Annals by Turnour—Buddhavansa, p. 42.

To render moreover his religion agreeable to the people, Gôtama even relaxed the rigid rules of discipline which he had at first enacted. He altered them to suit the circumstances, and also the prejudices of men. Where ordination could not be conferred without the intervention of ten priests, he reduced the prescribed number by one-half in favour of foreign countries. Where a village was rugged, stony, and overrun with brambles and thistles, the priests were permitted to wear thicker shoes than usual. Where bathing was rendered necessary more frequently than was allowed, as in the case of the priests of Ougein, he relaxed the rule in their favour. Where the use of skins had been prohibited, an exception was made in favour of those who had a national predilection for their use.

Such were the expedients adopted by Gôtama for disseminating Buddhism amongst the people. Yet the happiest device of all was to reject for his doctrines the sacred language of the Brahmans, and to adopt the vernacular dialect of his time, the Pâli.

The account given by the Singhalese of their sacred Buddhist books, which receive the appellation of Pittakattâya and the Atthakatha, is, that at the first convocation, which took place in the eighth year of King Ajâtasatta's reign (543 B.C.), the now existing orthodox version of Pittakattâya was rehearsed according, as the Brahmans say, to their Sruti,² and was defined and authenticated with such care and precision, as to fix the very number of syllables which it contained,—that certain comments called the Atthakatha were made at the same time; that at the 2nd and 3rd convocations, the Pittakattâya was rehearsed with a view to the suppression of certain schisms which had sprung up, and additional Atthakatha were delivered, exhibiting the history of Buddhism

Mahâ Vagga, p. Rhu.
'What they have heard with their ears'—so likewise the Buddhists say with regard to a portion of the Pittakattaya:—Evanmè sutan ekan samayan—'So it was heard by me at a time.'

between each preceding convocation; and that they were all preserved in the memory of succeeding generations.1

It is moreover stated that the entire body of doctrines was afterwards brought into Cevlon by Mahindu, and orally promulgated by him upon his mission to Ceylon to disseminate Buddhism in it; -and that the doctrines contained in our present voluminous records were orally perpetuated by the priesthood in Ceylon until the reign of King Valanganbâhu (104-76 B.c.), when 'for the first time they were committed to writing.'2 It would also seem that these writings were afterwards consulted [412 A.D.] by Buddhagôsa for his compilation of the Atthakathâ, which were not then extant in Asia.3

I have examined the original expressions in the Pali records⁴ which authorize the above summary, and, I confess, there is scarcely anything in the import of them hostile to the belief that the Buddhist doctrines, like those of Mahomet, had a written existence in Asia at the same time that portions of them were committed to memory, which is not disputed.

Memory and Writing being means by which both words and actions are perpetuated, and there being a great analogy between the mental and physical process by which this is effected,—it is not strange that nearly all acts in reference to them are found so expressed in metaphorical language as to render a double interpretation possible. Yet there are indeed certain expressions which may be more reasonably traced to a written than a memorial preservation of the word. Apart from the evidence deducible from the phraseology 5 of the scriptures themselves, we obtain most ample testimony from the inadvertent admissions of Buddhist writers,-that the doctrines of Gôtama were reduced to writing from the commencement of the Buddhist era, if not in the very lifetime of the sage.

See Buddhistical Annals by Turnour in Journal B.R.A.S., for July 1837.
 Mahavansa, p. 207.
 The Sumangala Vilasini and the Mahavansa.

⁵ Most of the words are the same in the Sanskrit; and I find Prof. Goldstücker has correctly defined them in his Panini-his place in Sanskrit Literaturepp. 13-66, a work which I have only seen after the preparation of this Lecture.

Against this position, which may be supported by various circumstances and considerations, it has been asserted that the Buddhist scriptures mentioned "cannon" and "fire arms;" and spoke, though in the language of prophecy, of Ionians and Asoka; and, therefore, they were written after the invention of gunpowder, and posterior to the Greek domination in Asia. As for the 'invention of gunpowder,' its date is not ascertained; yet, granting that it was not known before the time of Petrarch and Boccacio, it may be affirmed that "fire-arms" are not mentioned in any of the canonical works of Buddhism. We read of cavalry and infantry; of horses, elephants, and chariots; of bows, arrows, spears, javelins, targets, and swords; but not a single word about "guns" or "gunpowder"; and I may remark that the very name for gunpowder does not exist in the Pali language. The work, however, which contains the expression referred to, is the Malalangedara Vattu, another version of the Lalita Vistara,2 which, I need scarcely observe, is a recent work, and, as its very name implies, 'a glowing exaggeration.'

As to the inference sought to be deduced, viz. that the Yavanas-who were "a head-shaving race" 3-were Ionians or Bactrian Greeks, who could only have been known in Asia after the conquests of Alexander the Great, it is indeed unfounded. Few subjects connected with the history and chronology of the East are capable of more satisfactory proof than that the Yaranas or Yonas had been known before Gôtama Buddha.

The identification of Yavana with Mahommedans, is indeed open, in the opinion of Professor Wilson, to the objection, that the former are mentioned in works prior to the Mahommedan era.5 In one of Asoka's inscriptions, the Girnar, Antiochus is called the Yona Raja, "the King of the Yonas." The Milindapprasna speaks of Milinda as a Yona King.

See American Oriental Journal, vol. iii. p. 32.
 Bengal As. Journal, 1854, p. 614.
 "Sagara made the Yavanas shave their heads"—Vishnu Purána, iv. 3.

Prof. Benfey's article on India.
 Wilson's Hindu Theatre, vol. ii. p. 179.

Whether he be identical with *Menander*, and the Yônaka country with *Euthydemia*, remains to be proved. From the Milindapprasna, however, we learn that Milinda was born at *Kalasi* in *Alusaddo*, 200 yojanas from Sagal; and that Sagal was only 12 yojanas from Cashmir.

Isiodorus also mentions Sagal and Alexandria in the same sentence; and from the Mahawansa, moreover, we learn that Alasadda or Alasanda was the capital of the Yôna country. The mention of dipa or "island" in reference to Alasanda, in one of the passages above referred to,² presents, however, no valid objections against its identification with Alexandria; for Pali writers and Buddhists in general, like the ancient Greeks, had a very vague notion of the geographical position of countries.

Perhaps, the *Milindapprasna* as well as the inscriptions do not furnish conclusive proofs on the subject; since they were composed clearly after the date of *Asoka*, who is expressly mentioned there ³—nor indeed are the *Natakas* of much value for the same reason;—but the same objection does not apply to *Manu*, or the *Maha Bharata*, in both which ancient works the *Yavanas* are expressly mentioned.

Now, according to the Pali Annals, the latter work existed before the Buddhist era. This has been however doubted; but I believe there is not the same misapprehension as regards the Buddhist era itself. Whether the Buddhist annals came into existence after or before the death of the sage, signifies nothing; for if it can be shown that Buddha, whose age is pretty clearly established, had spoken of the Yavanas, their identification with the Bactrian Greeks must indeed fall to the ground. Mr. Turnour intimated this in his elaborate introduction to the Mahawansa, but failed to adduce any proof; and this omission has led Orientalists to doubt the statement of that eminent Pali scholar, viz. 'Yonas were mentioned long anterior to Alexander's in-

¹ Vide Wilson's Ariana, p. 230.

³ See, The Friend.

From the Milindapprasna.
Turnour's Mahavansa, p. li.

vasions in the ancient Pali works. It becomes, therefore, a pleasing duty—and it is no less my privilege—to cite the authority referred to by Mr. Turnour. It is the following from the Majjhima Nikáya, where Gôtama is stated to have asked with special reference to the distinction of Aryas and Dâsyas which had gained ground in the "foreign countries," such as Yôna and Kâmboja:—

'Assalàyana, what thinkest thou of this? Hast thou (not) heard that in Yona and Kamboja and in other foreign countries, there are various Ayyas (superiors) and dásas (inferiors); that superiors become inferiors, and inferiors, superiors?'

Whilst the authority above quoted satisfactorily explains the reason why, as in the *Hero* and the *Nymph*, Kalidâsa has applied the term *Yavana* to 'menial females,' it also proves that the *Yavanas* were anti-Buddhistical.

Since, however, it is expressly stated that the Buddhist doctrines, as well as the Vedas, were memorially preserved, the existence of writing itself at the date of the Buddhist era has been doubted by some.¹

Great as was, and is the value set upon memory, and great as was the extent to which that faculty was anciently taxed by Oriental nations, yet we should not infer that writing was not known in Buddhistical Asia, as the Greeks concluded from the fact of the Hindus having administered justice from memory.² Nor should we be led away with the belief that it was possible for man to retain in memory the Pittakattaya with its voluminous Commentaries. The question is not whether it is possible, in the abstract, to commit a thing to, and retain it in, memory; but whether it is possible to do so to the extent which the Pittakattaya, etc., would indicate. A porter may carry a heavy load, but it is not possible to bear the weight of Adam's Peak. We may hear a rat squeaking at the distance of a few yards; but

² Strabo, xv. 53.

¹ See Prof. Max Muller's Hist. of Sanskrit Literature.

it is impossible to do so at the distance of as many hundred miles. So likewise with our other faculties, for instance the memory. The matter in St. Paul's Greek Epistles which Beza committed to memory, or that of the sermons which the Guarnies could repeat with fidelity, bears indeed a very small proportion to the Tepitaka. If the Druids, who carried in their memories a large number of verses, the whole extent of their twenty years' learning, cannot by any means approach the contents of the English Bible, which is less than oneeleventh of the Buddhist Scriptures. If the poems of Homer, which extend to but 30,000 lines, were recited from memory, we ought to bear in mind that they are [2,000,000, ÷ 30,000= less than a sixty-sixth of the Buddhist works, the greater portion of which, being in prose, could not, moreover, tender that aid which the rhythm of poetry had afforded to the rhapsodists.

Now, reliable history furnishes us with no account of such wondrous feats of memory as are stated in Hindu and Buddhist writings. There are none such recorded in our Holy Scriptures. From all that appears in the Bible, the mode by which,

'-we, by tracing magic lines, are taught How to embody, and to colour thought-'

was known before the Israelites left Egypt [1491 B.C.]; or, in other words, writing was used at a time when its existence among the Hindus does not clearly appear. Neither does it appear from the Holy Scriptures that memory was made the Tablet of any of its doctrines, 'write this,' 'said the Lord unto Moses,'—and why?—'for a memorial,' that it might not be forgotten;—and where? in a book.—Exod. xvii. 14. The Ten Commandments were not only proclaimed by the voice of God, but were engraved (written) by Him on Tablets of stone. The author of the book of Exodus "took the book of the covenant and read it in the audience of the people." He furthermore recorded all that was revealed to him by God in books. Man's memory was not thus regarded as unerring or sufficiently stable to

dispense with a written record. The old Pali proverb Su-chipu-li mutto katan pandito bhaveyya, is indeed well known.

Buddhistical Annals, moreover, prove beyond all manner of doubt that in the lifetime of Gotama, not only was writing practised (1); not only that Buddhist doctrines were conveyed by means of it to different countries (2) (3) (4); not only that laws and usages were recorded (5); and that little children were taught to write (6); but that even women were found able to do so (7). The various passages which authorize the above statement also prove that the character used at the period above indicated was the Nagari.1 · A question still remains for investigation, and which it may be convenient to dispose of here—what muierials were employed for the purpose of writing at the period of the Buddhist era? All Orientalists know that paim leaves were used in connection with writing. We are also accustomed in this country to enumine ancient littles engraved upon metal. Numbers of these were also found in excavations in different parts of Asia. The Royal present from Bimbisara to Pukkusati was written upon a gold plate of 6 feet by 11 (see Extract No. 2). This costly material, however, was selected to enhance the value of the gift, and to give weight to the opinion concerning the virtues of Buddha, whom he introduced to the notice of his friend. This, therefore, may be regarded as the exception and not as the rule. For gold could not have been easily procured by poor scholars, and still poorer merdicant priests. Copper and other metals, though less costly than gold, were yet selected only with a view to perpetuate state documents, e.g. King Parakkrama bahu [A.D. 1200] made it a rule that 'when permanent grants of lands were made to those who had performed meritorious services, such behests should not be evanescent, like lines drawn upon water, by being

 ^(1.) Mahâ Vagga.
 (2.) Papancha Sudaniya.
 (3.) Mahâ Vagga.
 (4.) Maha Kappinna Vatt.
 (5.) Sumangala Vilàsini.
 (6.) Mahâ Vagga.
 (7.) Dampiã Atuva.
 See the description of this character in reference No. 2.

inscribed upon *leaves*—a material which is subject to be destroyed by rats and white ants—but that such patents should be engraved on plates of copper, so as to endure long unto their respective generations.'

Copper is, moreover, an unwieldy substance. It could not be written upon with the same facility that we now experience in tracing a pen on paper. Except by engraving, no lasting impression could be made upon it; and engraving was by no means practicable. It could not keep pace with the current of thought. Ordinary writing could not be effected by its means. If the Indians had a Pope who corrected a single line 70 times, the engraver would doubtless have had to perform a work of no ordinary labour! Inferior metal was not, therefore, the substance upon which the Poet and the Scholar drafted compositions. In Ceylon, every Pansala which is identical with the Indian lipi sàlà, has a sand-board: and this is used by poets for composition, and by children for exercises in writing. An author, while composing, usually wrote first on these tables, for the convenience of making alterations, but when he had perfected his composition, the same was, it may be presumed, transferred to a more durable substance than the Velipila.

For the preservation of one's writing a more permanent material was required than the sand, or tablets of wax. Strips of wood and bambu were used, and the use of the latter probably led to the invention of paper in China from reeds. Yet paper, whether known at this time or not, was not used by Orientals, except by the inventors themselves. In the Hindu mind there was, as it is still seen, a feeling of aversion to paper. Books written on paper were probably in ancient times, as they are now, not generally used in Asia. Nor have we any reason to believe that paper was known in India at the Buddhist era. But skins were. It should again be borne in mind that originally the Hindus were no slayers of animals, and though the hides of the antelope, etc., came into use gradually, and though animal sacrifices, doubtless, produced a good deal of skins, yet there is no mention of hides as a writing material; and Buddhism, too, sets its face

against all animal slaughter and the use of 'Sheep-skin, Deer-skin, and Goat-skin,' which were originally forbidden as coverlets, were only permitted in foreign countries, where the prohibition might be an impediment to the free dissemination of Buddhism. It may thence be concluded that some other material was employed for ordinary writing. Cloth, doubtless, formed one of the common substances for writing upon, as we find it even at the present day in the Burman Empire; and M. Burnouf gives a story from the Divyu Avadana, of the Nepal works, to the effect that Bimbisara sent to Rúdrayana, King of Róruka, a portrait of Gótama on cloth, with the Buddhist formula of refuge written below it.

Though, perhaps, this is one of the Fables which were invented by the Heretics, who had seceded from the Buddhist church, yet the fact that cloth was used in early times as a writing material may be relied upon. And it would seem from the travels of the early Chinese pilgrims, and the mode in which Buddhist doctrines were circulated, that some other material besides cloth was used for the ordinary purposes of writing, and this we are expressly told, in reference to the correspondence of Bimbisâra and Pukkusâti, was on panna or 'leaf'; and the discoveries in the topes of Nandâra and Hidda show that the Tuz leaf was used for Inscriptions in the Bactro-Pali character. It was, however, not this that was anciently used for writing purposes. Neither was it 'the lotus leaf as smooth as a parrot's breast,' which Kâlidasa in his Sakuntalâ puts in the hands of the chief heroine of the play to write her love-letter on. Nor, indeed, was it the birch-leaf which the same poet in his Vikramorvasi places in the hands of Urvasi as a suitable material on which to inscribe her epistle. The latter, says Prof. Max Müller, is used in the sense of a "leaf or sheet of paper." And this indicates clearly that Kâlidâsa wrote long after the Buddhist era, and long after the Egyptian papyrus had been known to the Asiatics.

That the leaf, however, which was anciently used by Asiatics for ordinary writing was the Talipot, or the "ola," appears from the very language of Gôtama Buddha; and the

instrument for writing was the Panna-Suchèya, 'leaf-pin,' or Stylus. From a Tamil work which Mr. William Ferguson quotes, in his interesting work on the Palmirah Palm, it appears that the 'oldest Hindu author, Panini, mentions writing on ôlas.' I may also mention what Pliny states, that the most ancient mode of writing was upon the leaf of the Palm tree: and the ola is expressly mentioned as an ordinary writing material in the Buddhist annals.

From an investigation into the question whether the Buddhist doctrines had a written existence from the very commencement of the Buddhist era, I return to the question of the dialect in which they were originally expressed.

Upon the authority of the Tibetan annals, Mons. de Körös names several languages into which the Buddhist Scriptures were early translated, but distinguishes one as Tathagata's "own language." The earliest Pali Grammar of Kachchayana, which is indeed extant in Ceylon as well as in Burmah, also refers us to the "language of Buddha," for the elucidation of which he had compiled the Sandhikappa.

The question arises—what was this language? That it was not the Sanskrit is generally believed. That it was not the language of which the Chinese pilgrims speak as the Fan is also clear; for, apart from other evidence such as the existence of a dual number in the so-called Fan language, the same word Fan is used to designate Brahmâ, clearly showing that by it was meant the Sanskrit, or the sacred language of the Brahmans. The only other languages that demand attention are, "the language (as it is called) of the northern Buddhists," and the Pali language of the Singhalese.

As to the first, we gather from the writings of a learned Hindu gentleman, and of Mons. Burnouf, 'that the Buddhist literature of Nepal, from which the Sacred Scriptures of Tibet, Tartary, and China have been compiled, is in an ugly Sanskrit dialect, destitute of the niceties of the Sanskrit grammatical forms of declension and conjugation, etc.; that the authors have sacrificed grammar to the exigencies of metre; that it is in a mixed style of prose and Gathàs; that it bears a strong resemblance to the Tantras of the 4th to the 7th

century of the Christian era; -and that it appears to be the production of men to whom the task of compilation was assigned without sufficient materials at their disposal.' In view of these peculiarities, Mons. Burnouf has pronounced the Nepal sacred scriptures to be a 'barbarous Sanskrit, in which the forms of all ages, Sanskrit, Pali and Prakrita, appear to be confounded.' Referring to the difference of language of the different parts of the Vaipulya, 'the highly developed Sutras,' the same distinguished Orientalist remarks, that it 'indicates in the clearest manner that there was 'another digest,' besides the compilations of the three great recumenical convocations of the Buddhists, and that in his opinion, the Nepal Scriptures comprise a fourth digest, which he 'regards as the crude composition of writers to whom the Sanskrit was no longer familiar, and who endeavoured to write in a learned language they ill understood, with the freedom which is imparted by the habitual use of a popular but imperfectly determined dialect.'

This question, as indeed many others of historical character, is solved by the Pâli annals of Ceylon; and here I shall present you a translation from the Dipavansa; the value of the information which it imparts cannot be too much overrated.

'Many individuals, viz. ten thousand Vajjians,1 sinful bhikhhus, who had been expelled by the Theras, assembled together; and, having formed another association, held R Council of the Dhamma. This is thence called the Maha Sangiti.

'The bhikkus who held the Maha Sangiti reduced the religion into confusion; 2 set aside 3 the first compilation; 4

¹ Wajji, a portion of Behar in which the Lichchavi princes settled. It is not, however, stated where this Council was held. Doubtless it was at a distance from the principal seat of Government and Buddhism, which at this period was at Wesali or modern Allahabad.

² Viloman akansu, 'made to bristle,' 'ruffled,' 'crossed,' 'confused.'

³ Bhinditva 'having broken,' 'split.'

^{*} Sangahan. From the context, I would render this word 'compilation' and not 'rehearsal.' The acts here related, taken in connection with the original import of the word, can only refer to a written and not a mental 'collection.

and made 1 another. They transferred the Suttans from their proper places to others, and perverted the sense and distorted the words 2 of the five nikayas. They did so, ignorant of (the difference between) the general discourses, and those (delivered) on particular occasions, and also (between) their natural and implied significations. They expressed⁸ in a different sense that which was otherwise declared; and set aside various significations under the unwarranted authority (shadow) of words.4 They omitted one portion of the Suttans and the Vinaya of deep import, and substituted 5 (their own) version 6 of them, and the text.7 They left out the Parizaran annotations, six books of the Abhidhamma, the Patisambida, the Niddesa and a portion of the Jatakas, 10 without replacing anything in their stead. They moreover disregarded 11 the nature of nouns, their gender, and (other) accidents 12 as well as the (various) requirements of style; 13 and corrupted them in various ways.'

The above passage clearly indicates that there was a code

¹ Akarinsu, 'made' 'done,' 'effected.' The same word is used in the following sentence wherein I have rendered it 'placed.'

² Dhamma here means "phraseology" of the Scriptures as opposed to their Attha "the sense."

Thapayinsu—'they made to stand.'

Vyanjana, 'letters,' and in some of the Buddhist writings, 'words' or sentences.

sentences.

⁵ Patirûpa, placed 'a figure' or 'counterpart.'

⁶ From a comparison of the Ceylon and Nepal versions of the sacred writings.

I find the latter has three sections, the Vypulya, the Nidan and Upadesa, all which are additions to the original discourses. Compare the following list taken from Hodgson's Illustrations with the list from Buddhagosa's Atthakatha [B. R. A. S. J.]. Hodgson says, "The Buddha Scriptures are twelve kinds, known by the following twelve names:—1, Sutra; 2, Geya; 3, Vyákarana; 4, Gátha; 5, Udan; 6, Nidan; 7, Ityukta; 8, Játaka; 9, Vaipulya; 10, Adbhuta Dharma; 11, Avadan; and 12, Upadesa.''

⁷ Tantin, 'The Text.'

⁸ Atthaddharan, "explanatory discourses'

⁸ Atthuddharan, "explanatory discourses."
9 Pakarana, 'Compilation,' something made methodically,' 'an original

The Jatakas, in the Indian versions, are, it is said, less than 550.

¹¹ The peculiarities here noticed when compared with those of the Gatha dialect of the Nepal scriptures—(See Essay thereon by Babu Rajendralal Mittra in the Bl. A.S.J. for 1854, p. 604 et seq.). There can be no doubt of the identity between this fourth code of the Buddhists and the Nepal version. The differences of style therein illustrated by Mr. Mittra exactly correspond with the defects of composition here described.

¹² parikkaran, 'attributes,' 'decoration,' 'accidents.'

¹³ Akappakarani, also 'decoration,' 'embellishment,' 'niceties' of style or composition.

different from the Orthodox version of the sacred writings, which were authenticated at three different convocations, and that the Nepal version is a modification of that code. It also establishes that the compilation in question was made, not in the Tantra period above referred to—not in the age of Kanishka—but in the early part of the 2nd century of the Buddhist era.

I shall now pass on to the Maghadi language—the remaining subject of this evening's discourse.

The Sanskrit had, it is believed, died out along with Brahmanism about six centuries B.C.1 At all events, at the time when Buddhism arose, Sanskrit was no longer the vernacular speech of the people. Several dialects (and the Buddhist books speak of eighteen) had been in current use in India. The Pali was, doubtless, one of them, if not the principal Prâkrit language.² It was properly the language of Magadha. Numerous Pali theological terms, which have peculiar significations clearly distinguishable from those assigned to the same cognate expressions by the Sanskrit Brahmans, taken with numerous other circumstances in the history of Buddhism, prove beyond all doubt that the Pâli was essentially the language of Gôtama, and of Buddhism. We find it retained till the time of Asoka, more than two centuries afterwards. The difference between the dialect of the inscriptions and that of the Pali texts, as, for instance, the Dhammapada, establishes nothing beyond the fact that the former as a spoken language had undergone changes, whilst the latter, as is evidenced from the Yedhamma hetuppabava stanza quoted in the inscriptions, became fixed in Ceylon as the sacred language of the scriptures.3 The use of the Prâkrit for the

¹ Prof. Bentey on India, p. 251. ² If "the Maharashtri," as stated by Râma Tarkavagisa, "is the root of other Prakrits"—viz. those which have not been banished from Asia—the Pali presents the most unequivocal proof of its being the parent of all Prakrits, including the Maharashtri.

³ Ye dhammà hètuppabhavà Tèsan hètun Tathagatò Aha tèsancha yò niròdhò Evan vàdi mahà Samanò.

[·] Whatever dhamma have proceeded from certain causes Tathagata declares

inscriptions in preference to the Sanskrit, proves most satisfactorily that it was 'the vernacular speech of the people in the same manner that the use of the local alphabets is evidence of a design to render the inscriptions accessible to the people.' 'We may therefore (says Prof. Wilson) recognize it as an actually existent form of speech in some part of India, and might admit the testimony of its origin given by the Buddhists themselves-by whom it is always identified with the language of Magadha or Behar.'

The terms Pali and Magadhi are names which are at the present day indifferently employed in Ceylon, Ava, Siam, and even China, to express the sacred language of the Buddhists, and being confined to those countries, the term Puli is not met with in any of the Indian writings.

Mâgadhi is the correct and original name for the Pali. was not called the Mågadhi, in consequence of the Mission of Asôka, the King of Magadha, to introduce Buddhism into Cevlon. It had received that name before the age of that It was so called after the ancient name of Behar. It was the appellation for the ancient vernacular language of Magadha. It was the designation for the dialect of the Magadhas.—Magadhanam bhasa Magadhi.1

⁽the same, and) the causes of them; and whatever may be their distinction (the same likewise he declares). The Maha Samana (is one of) such speech. This verse is found rendered in so many different ways (See Journal R. A. S. Great Britain and Ireland, xvi. p. 37 et seq., that I have thought it proper to present the following passage from the Atthakathà or the Commentary on the Vinayn text-

Vinayn text—
Yè dhammà bètuppabhavà—iti; 'hetuppabhavà' nàma panchakkhandhà,—
tènassa dukkha sachchan dassèti. Tesan hetu Tathagato aha—iti; 'tèsan
hètu' nàma samudaya sachchan—tancha Tathàgatò àha iti dassèti. Tesancha
yo nirodho—iti; tèsan ubhinnampi apparatte niròdhò, tancha Tathàgatò àha iti
atthò; tènassa niròdha sachchan dassèti. Magga Sachchan panettha sarùpatò
adassitampi nayatò dassitan hòti; niròdhòti uttè tassa sampàpakò maggò ruti-òva
hoti; atthavà tesancha yo nirodho-ti ettha 'tesan yo niròdò cha' niròdhupàyòchati; èvan dvèpi sachchàni dassitani honti. Idani tamè' vatthan patipàdento
ha Enga sadi maha Sunno aha-Evan vadi maha Samano.

[&]quot;Ye dhamma hetuppabhava—i.e. by 'those that are born by some cause'—are meant the panchakhhanda; whereby the verity of dukkha (sorrow) is proclaimed to him [Upatissa]. By tesan hetu 'their cause' is meant the verity of Samudhaya 'birth.' The same is also pointed out as declared by Tathagata. By tesancha yo nirodho 'whatever may be their destruction,' is meant the transientness, the indurability of those two (sorrow and birth), which are also said to be declared by Tathagata.

¹ Prakrit Prakasa, p. 179.

Pali is comparatively a modern name for the Magadhi. has not originated from 'the region called Pallistan, the (supposed) land of the Pali-Our Palestine.' 'It does not come from Palitur in Tyre—the so-called Pali tower or Fort.' has no historical connection with 'the Palatine hills of Rome.' It was not called after the Pehlve, the dialect of the Sassanian dynasty. It is not derived from 'Palli, a village,' as we should now-a-days distinguish gunavari, 'village,' 'boorish,' from Urdu, "the language of the Court." 2 Nor does it indeed mean "root," or "original."3

Like àli, the word pali originally signified a 'line,' 'row,' 'range,'4 and was gradually extended to mean 'Suttan,' From: its being like a line, and to signify edicts, or the state and rules in Budha's discourses or doctrines, which are taken From thence it became an appellation from the Suttans. for the text of the Buddhist Scriptures, as in the following passages :-

Therayachariya sabbe Palin viya tam aggahun. 'All the three preceptors held this compilation in the same estimation as the text (of the Pitakattaya).' Thera vàdèhi pàlehi padehi vyanjanihicha. 'In the Thera discourses as in the text (of

See the Friend, vi. p. 236.
 Prinsep, Bl. As. J. vol. vii. p. 282.

³ Turnour's Mahavansa, p. xxii, where he merely gives the opinion of the Buldhists; and this is no more correct than the Brahmanical opinion that Prakrita means 'the derived.'—Vide post.

⁴ See Abhidhanappadipika, p. 71. It is not a little curious that Mahommedans, between whom and the Buddhists there was no intercourse at the period when their sacred books were written, call the larger portions of the Koran "Sowar" ('Sûra,' sing.), signifying precisely, as the word Puli does, 'a row, order, or regular series. The Arabic Sûra, whether immediately derived from the Sanskrit 'Sreni' or not, is the same in use and import as the Sura or Tora of the Jews, who also call the tifty-three Sections of the Pentateuch, Sidarim, a word of the same signification.

⁵ Itaran pana; Atthànan sùchanatò Suvuttatò savana totha sûdanatò Suttànato sutta sabhà gatocha suttan suttanti akkhatan.

^{&#}x27;The other (which is) the Suttan, is called 'Suttan' from its illustrating the properties (of duties); from its exquisite tenor; from its being productive (of nuch sense) and from its overflowing (tendency) the protection (which it affords); and from its being like a string?—Buddhaghosa's Atthakatha.

Hevancha hevan cha me pàliyo vadetha: 'Thus, thus shall ye cause to be read my puliyo or edicts.'-P, insep's Asoka Inscrip.

the Pitakattaya); and in an expression as in a letter.' From thence again *Pali* has become the name of the Màgadhi language in which Buddha delivered his doctrines.

The terms Pali and Magadhi are names which are at the present day indifferently employed in Ceylon, Ava, Siam, and even China, to express the sacred language of the Buddhists; and being confined to those countries, the term Pali is not met with in any of the Indian writings.

The Pali has also received the designation of Tanti, 'the string of a lute,' its Sanskrit cognate being tantri. From that signification it seems to have been originally applied by the Brahmans to tantra, 'a religious treatise teaching peculiar and mystical formulæ and rites for the worship of their deities or the attainment of superhuman power,' or, 'that which is comprised of five subjects, the creation and destruction of the world, the worship of the gods, the attainment of all objects, magical rites for the acquirement of six superhuman faculties and four modes of union with the spirit by meditation.' The Mâgadhas, before their secession from the Brahman Church, probably used the Màgadhì term tanti in this sense; but when they embraced the Buddhist faith, they used it to signify the doctrines of Gôtama as in the following passages:—(1) Sammà Sambuddhò pi te pitakan Buddha vachanan Tantin àròpentò Màgadhì bàsàyá íva aròpesi-'Buddha who rendered his tepitaka words into Tanti (or tantra or doctrines) did so by means of the Magadhi language'-Vibhanga Atuva. (2) Tivagga sangahan chatuttinsa suttanta patimanditan chatu satthi bhànavàra parimànan tantin sangáyetva ayan dígha nikày ò nàmà 'ti-' Having rehearsed the Tanti (the doctrines) which contain 64 banavara embracing 34 Suttans composed of 3 classes, (this was) named Dighanikaya'-Bhodivansa. From its application to the Buddhist doctrines, Tanti has become a name for the sacred language itself of the Buddhists-viz. the Magadhi or Pali. Buddhagosa's Atthakatha, 'why was the first convocation held? In order that the Nidanan of the Vinaya pitaka, the merits of which are conveyed in the Tanti (Pali) language,

might be illustrated.' Thus, also, in the Balavatara in a part of the passage which answers to the § 58 in the Rev. B. Clough's version, where it is left untranslated.

Evam aññá pi viññeyyà Sanhità tanti yà hità Sanhità chita vannànan Sannidha'byava dhànatò.

That is to say, 'In this wise know the rest of the combinations which are susceptible in the *Tanti* (language). Sanhita is the combination of letters without a hiatus.'

The popular tradition amongst the native Pandits of Ceylon is that Pali is a sister dialect of the Sanskrit, having been probably derived from one and the same stem.

In considering this subject we notice that the Brahmans regard the Sanskrit to be of divine origin, and as a direct revelation from their creator. I am indeed aware that the Brahman notion of the so-called Prâkrits (the Mâgadhi included) being derived from the Sanskrit, has the countenance and support of such eminent men as MM. Burnouf and Lassen: but it is submitted with great deference that this position can no more be satisfactorily proved, than that Prakrit means "derived," or that pakriti, 'the mother,' is the daughter. Be this, however, as it may, the pretensions of the Buddhists are as great as those of the The former claim for the Pali an antiquity so remote that they affirm it to be 'a language the root of all dialects, which was spoken by men and Brahmas at the commencement of the creation, by those who never before heard nor uttered human accents; and also by all Buddhas.'

For the above we have not only the authority of the Payôgasiddhi, but the following from the Vibhanga Atuvâ:

'Tissadatta thera took up the gold broomstick in the Bô compound, and requested to know in which of the eighteen bhásas he should speak? He so (spake) from (a knowledge of those languages) not acquired through inspiration, but by actual study; for being a very wise personage he knew those several dialects by learning—wherefore, being one of (such)

acquirements he so inquired. This is said here (to illustrate) that men acquire a bhasa (by study).

'Parents place their children when young either on a cot or a chair, and speak different things and perform different actions. Their words are thus distinctly fixed by the children (on their minds) (thinking) that such was said by him, and such by the other; and in process of time they learn the entire language. If a child born of a Domila mother and an Andhaka father should first hear his mother speak, he would speak the Damila language; but if he should hear his father first, he would speak the Andhaka. If, however, he should not hear them both, he would speak the Magadhi. If, again, a person in an uninhabited forest, in which no speech (is heard), should intuitively attempt to articulate words, he would speak the very Mágadhi. It predominates in all regions (such as) Hell; the Animal kingdom; the Petta sphere; the human World; and the World of the The remaining eighteen languages, Otta, Kiráthá, Andhaka, Yonaka, Damila, etc., undergo changes—but not the Magadhi, which alone is stationary, as it is said to be the speech of Brahmas and Ariyas. Every Buddha, who rendered his tepitaka words into doctrines, did so by means of the very Magadhi; and why? Because by doing so it (was) easy to acquire their (true) significations. Moreover, the sense of the words of Buddha which are rendered into doctrines by means of the Magadhi language, is conceived in hundreds and thousands of ways by those who have attained the pati sambidha, so soon as they reach the ear, or the instant the ear comes in contact with them; but discourses rendered into other languages are acquired with much difficulty.'

Now, it is a fact that 'all rude nations are distinguished by a boastful and turgid vanity.' They cannot speak of their race or of their sacred languages without assigning to them an origin the remotest in the world. In 'a spirit of adulation and hyperbole' they exalt them as high as the object of their adoration and worship. This is peculiarly the case with Eastern nations.

Although such extravagantly high pretensions are by

themselves of no value, yet, when some of these traditions are partially supported by the concurrence of other testimony, such as the high antiquity of the Pali—its refinement—its comparative simplicity both verbally and grammatically—and its relationship to the oldest language of the Brahmans, from which their present dialect has been Sanskritized:—we may, by a judicious exercise of our judgment in separating fact from fable, and reality from fiction, receive them, I apprehend, to the extent to which they are confirmed. Thus the traditions of both the Brahmans and the Buddhists in respect of their respective languages may be received, so far as they are proved to be two dialects of high antiquity derived from a source of which scarcely any traces are to be found at the present day.

The Pali according to tradition was brought into Ceylon by our first Monarch Wijaya, shortly after the time of Gôtama; and although Professor Lassen regards this as a question involved in obscurity, yet the name of the "Conqueror" and the designation of many a town, edifice, and mountain—nay, the very name "Tambapanna" given to the Island by Wijaya, and which we find was shortly afterwards used by the Indian Monarch Asoka in the rock Inscriptions, would lead to the inference that the Pali was the language of the first colonists.

There is another circumstance which may be here noticed. The birth-place of the first settlers of Ceylon was Lala. It is identical with Lata or Lada; and Dandi, the author of Kavyadarsa, says that even in comparatively a modern age, that of the dramas, the language of Lata as well as of Banga (which latter is only a different pronunciation of Vanga, and merely another name for Gowda) was usually the Prakrit. His authority goes farther, for he places the language of Lala in the same class as that of Gowda, Surasena, etc., and his commentator explains the 'et cetera' to mean the Magadhi (Pali) and Panchala (the Zend). Hence all circumstances considered, it is very clear that the Pali was the language

¹ See my remarks hereon in the Journal C.B. R.A.S.

of the band from Lala who colonized Ceylon, or rather a modification of it which bore the nearest relation to such languages as the Sûraseni and the Zend—at all events, a so-called *Prakrita* dialect; and therefore a language of the Ariyan and not of the South-Indian class.

But the best evidence of the fact is that furnished by a comparison of the Singhalese with Pali and other Indian dialects.¹

I have already,² though somewhat doubtfully, intimated my belief that the Singhalese belonged to the northern family of languages. My later researches only tend to confirm that belief, and they enable me moreover to affirm that "the most unequivocal testimony" to which Prof. Spiegel and Sir Emerson Tennent refer, tends to but one conclusion, viz. that 'that the Singhalese as it is spoken at the present day, and still more strikingly as it exists as a written language in the literature of this Island, presents no affinity to the Dekhanese group of languages.' It is, however impossible to do justice to the subject within the circumscribed limits of a Lecture of one hour's duration, and I must therefore return to the subject.

It would appear from both the Singhalese and Tibetan annals that even in the lifetime of Buddha, there were many dialects prevalent in India. As already observed, eighteen dialects are spoken of in the Vibhanga Atuva; and preference is of course given to the Mágadhi. The orthodox version of the Buddhist Scriptures, written in the lastmentioned dialect, was doubtless brought by Mahindu [in 307 B.C.] to Ceylon, where it has since remained unchanged, as its phraseology abundantly testifies.

Although a dead language, the Pali has been carefully cultivated in Ceylon. From the period it became the sacred language of the Singhalese, Kings and Princes have encouraged its study; nobles and statesmen have vied with each other to excel in its composition; and laymen and priests have produced some of the most elegant works in it. The

² See my Introduction to the Sidathsangara.

¹ A paper on the subject will be shortly published as an Appendix to this Lecture.

names of Batuwantudàve, Hikkaduwe, Lankagoda, Dodanpahala, Valâne, Bentota, Kahâve, and Sumangala, amongst a host of others, are indeed familiar to Pali scholars, as those of the learned who are even now able to produce compositions by no means inferior to those of a Buddhagôsa or a Parakkrama, though, like the modern Sanskrit, certainly more artificial than the more ancient writings. Not only in Cevlon, but in the Burman Empire are there scholars who excel in Pali. Of the writings, especially, of the present King of Siam, I cannot speak but in the highest terms of admiration. There, as in Ceylon, the Pali is most assiduously cultivated amongst the priesthood. But, as is not the case in Ceylon, whole libraries are there replaced annually by new ones, after they have undergone the careful inspection of learned men.

Mr. Hardy states that the high state of cultivation to which the Pali language was carried, and the great attention that has been paid to it in Ceylon, may be inferred from the fact that a list of works in the possession of the Singhalese, which he found during his residence in this Island, included thirty-five works on Pali Grammar, some of them being of considerable extent. And what is still more remarkable, the Singhalese, which had been formed out of the Pali, was eagerly, though ineffectually, sought to be "set aside" for the language of Gôtama. It is expressly stated by the author of the Mahavansa (459-477 A.D.) that in that work, the object aimed at, is the setting aside of the Singhalese language, in which the former history was composed.2 Again the design of the Pali version of the Singhalese Daladâvansa (1196-1200 A.D.) is said to be the same.3

In the proportion, however, in which Pali has been cultivated and enriched in Ceylon, has it declined in Asia 4 and with it the religion which was taught through its medium.

Eastern Monachism, pp. 191, 2.
 Introduction to the Mahawansa.
 See Beng. A.S. Journal.
 The modern Mâgadhì differs essentially from the Pali. In those respects in which it differs from the Pali it approaches the Prakrit, or the sacred language of the Jainas.

The shock which Buddhism received in those countries in which it most flourished (when such works as the Kalpa Sutra and Lalita Vistàra began to make their appearance) must have been great indeed to render necessary as we have already seen the special mission of a Buddhagosa to Ceylon. His translations were so much admired that in very early times they found their way from Ceylon to Burmah, the only country, we believe, where they are still preserved in the integrity of our originals. Not only these but our historical works, it seems, had in early times been applied for, and obtained by the Burmese; and we find from a valuable collection of Pâli books brought down in 1812, by the learned Nadoris de Silva, Modliar, from that country, that they had preserved even the commentary on the Mahawansa with comparatively greater accuracy than ourselves. Fortunate indeed it was for Ceylon that the Burman Empire had borrowed Lanka's Pali books, for when the literature of this Island was nearly annihilated by the cruelties of some of our Malabar Monarchs (and we had indeed amongst them many an Edward III. who laid his ruthless hands on the literary and religious archives of the nation), the repositories of Siam and Amarapora failed not to supply our deficiencies, and to furnish us with the means for placing our Pali Literature at least upon a respectable footing.

The number of Pali books on Buddhism far exceeds the Lexical and Grammatical works; and it is remarkable that the Pali Literature of the Singhalese is not deficient in other branches of Oriental Sciences. It presents a proud array of extensive volumes on Prosody, Rhetoric, Medicine, History, etc. Of all these, however, the historical works possess an all-absorbing interest. For I may safely assert that no Country in the East can beast of so correct a history of its own affairs and those of Asia generally, as Ceylon. The Phænicians, who, as you are aware, had influenced the civilization of a very large portion of the human race by their great inventions and discoveries, by their colonies established in every quarter of the globe, and above all by the extensive commerce which they had carried on—have

left nothing behind, except the alphabet which they had invented. The Persians, a very interesting and a very ancient race of people, and to whom we naturally look for historic information, have little beyond their Zendavasta, two chapters of which contain some traditions of their own. The Hindus, a people who had a literature of their own from a period long before the Singhalese became a nation, have no historical records, and their scanty 'fragmentary historical recollections,' which have been embodied with their religious works, such as the Puranas, present themselves in the language of a prophecy, and upon their basis no trustworthy chronological calculations can be made.1 In the Vedas again, which are perhaps older than any Ceylonese Buddhist writings, and which are supposed to 'furnish the only sure foundation on which a knowledge of ancient and modern India can be built up'2—there is a lamentable lack of historic sense: which has ever been one of the most remarkable characteristics of the Indian mind.3

The Chinese, who boast of a descent from times remoter than the days of Adam, have no historical writings which can throw the smallest particle of light upon the affairs of the East.

In the country of Magadha, so greatly renowned as the birth-place of Buddhism, and the still more interesting language (the Pali) in which it was promulgated—a kingdom, moreover, which dates its origin from the time of the Mahá Bhàrat,4—we have no records of a historical character, beyond religious inscriptions, sculptured on stones, and grants of lands engraved on copper plates. These 'unconnected fragments,' beyond serving to fix the dates of particular Kings, furnish us at present with neither History nor matter sufficient to help us to a general Chronology. The Bactrian coins, again, afford us the same kind of information with

See Prof. Lassen's Indische Alterthumskunde, p. 503.
 Essay on the results of the Vedic Researches, by W. D. Whitney, American Oriental J. vol. iii. p. 291.

³ ib. p. 310. 4 Elphinstone's History of India.

which the monumental inscriptions furnish us, but little or nothing beyond that. 'The only Sanskrit composition yet discovered in all Asia to which the title of History can with any propriety be applied is the Rajatarangini,'1 a comparatively modern work which was compiled A.D. 1148: and this again does not bear any comparison either in point of the matter it contains, or in the interest which attaches to the subjects it treats upon, with the Singhalese Historical Records.

The genuine historic zeal exhibited by the Singhalese from the very time they colonized Ceylon far surpasses that of all other Indian nations.2

The love 3 which the Singhalese had for such pursuits was participated by their rulers themselves; and, whilst tradition asserts that some of our early Singhalese Annals from which the Mahawansa was compiled were the works of some of our monarchs-History records the facts, that 'the national annals were from time to time compiled by royal command;' and that the labours of 'the historians were rewarded by the State with grants of lands.' The interest which our sovereigns took in this part of the national literature was so great indeed, that many a traveller and geographer of the middle ages was peculiarly struck, as 'a trait of the native rulers of Ceylon,' with the fact of the employment by them of persons to compile the national annals. And though comparatively few are the records which the ravages of time and the devastating hand of sectarian opposition have left behind, they, nevertheless, excel in matter and interest all the annals of Asia. 'As the first actual writing and

¹ Prof. H. H. Wilson, Introduction to Rajatar.

Lassen's Indisch. Alt. vol. ii. pp. 13, 15.
 This is inherent in the Singhalese, and it is not a little curious that just as we are writing on the subject, the Colombo Observer of 30th August, 1860, puts forth the same views in alluding to a recent examination of the boys of the Cottae Christian Institution, as follows, "Then came a very interesting e..amination of several boys in Roman History. The read less with which the various questions were answered, and the apparent pleasure the boys took in this study, show that the spirit of their ancestors who composed the Mahawansa is strong in Singhalese boys of this generation."

the first well-authenticated inscriptions in India, are of Buddhist origin,'1 so likewise the first actual chronicle as well as the most authentic history, in the whole of the Eastern hemisphere, may be traced to a CEYLON-BUDDHISTIC source.

Sir James Emerson Tennent² says, and says truly, that "the Mahawansa stands at the head of the historical literature of the East, unrivalled by anything extant in Hindostan, the wildness of whose chronology it controls."

When for instance the capacious mind of Sir William Jones seized with avidity the identity of Chandragupta and Sandracottus, and thence discovered the only key for unlocking the history and chronology of Asia, the annals of Cevlon were not without their use in removing the doubts which were conjured up in the imagination of antiquaries. When the indefatigable labours of a Prinsep enabled him to decipher the rock Inscriptions of Piyadasi or Devanampiya, the discovery could not with certainty have been applied either to fix the proper date of the Buddhistic era, or to reduce the chronology of Asia to its proper limits without the aid of the Singhalese records—the Dipavansa in particular, which identified Devanampiya with Asòka. When the obscure dialect of the pillar Inscriptions presented philological difficulties, the Ceylon Pali Mahawansa alone served as an "infallible dictionary" for their elucidation. When again the Cashmirean history put forth an extravagant Chronology, Ceylon chronicles alone enabled Mr. Turnour to effect an important and valuable correction to the extent of 794 years, and thereby to adjust the chronology of the East. When lastly the deep penetrating mind of a Burnouf, from an examination into the Nepal version of the Buddhist

¹ Prof. Max Müller's Sanskrit Literature, p. 520.

History of Ceylon, p. 516.
 "Mr. Turnour's Pali authorities will be of essential use in expounding our new discovery, and my only excuse for not having taken the epitome already published as my guide before is, that the identity of *Piadassa* was not then established."—Mr. James Prinsep in the Bengal A. S. J. vol. vi. p. 792, &c.

4 "On turning to the *infallible Tika* upon our inscriptions afforded by Mr. Turnour's admirable Mahawansa, we find a circumstance recorded which may heip

us materially to understand the obscure passage."-Prinsep, Bengal A. S. J. vol. vii. p. 262.

Scriptures, conceived the idea of "a fourth digest" of the Buddhists, apart from the compilations of the three convocations, the Singhalese Annals, and above all the *Dîpàwansa* alone, furnished the proof required for establishing the conjecture.

Such were, and are, the claims of the Pali literature of this Island upon the attention of the learned in Europe. Yet it is a melancholy fact that for a very long period of time the greatest indifference was manifested in its study by the savans of Europe.

When more than forty years ago Rask wrote, the greatest misconception prevailed amongst Europeans on all Oriental subjects. Eastern languages were not extensively cultivated. A gloom enveloped the science of Comparative Philology. Inaccessible was the path to Eastern history. Even the Sanskrit, the language in the highest state of cultivation now-a-days, was then but imperfectly known to the European world. Some considered it a derivative of the Zend, and others treated it as a creature of the Pali. Little, if anything, was definitely investigated of the latter. The relation which Sanskrit bore to the Prakrit was imperfectly investigated, and was, at the time Wilson translated Vickrama and Urvasi, far from being understood; and when the researches of Lassen and Burnouf, 'with that love of novelty and that honorable ambition which greatly distinguished them,' brought to light the Nepal books of Buddhism, even the names of their Pali versions were unknown to Europeans. The distinction between the Arya and the Dekhanese groups of languages was not well ascertained. The Tamil was supposed to have been an offshoot of the Sanskrit. The Andhra merely existed as a book name. Between it and the Dravida no relationship was established, much less was the identity of Dravida and Damila recognized. The Singhalese was not known in Europe.

When, more than thirty years ago, Hodgson announced the discovery of the Nepal Scriptures in a dialect intermediate between the Pali and Sanskrit, and the indefatigable Burnouf commenced their examination, eight years

afterwards—an impression was formed hostile to the real merits of the *Pali* or the Magadhi, and this, far from being removed, was indeed confirmed by the unjust opinion of Colebrooke, one of those patriotic followers of Sir William Jones, who devoted his chief attention to the *Sanskrit* literature—when he pronounced the Pali to be "a dialect used by the vulgar," and identified it with "the *Apabhransa*, a jargon destitute of regular grammar."

This hasty expression of opinion by one so highly esteemed for his deep researches in the Indian literature has not however been without its ill effects. It checked, though for a time, the current of inquiry. It discouraged those who might have otherwise successfully pursued their researches in the Pali. It even damped the energies of the nations of continental Europe, who "are the most diligent cultivators of Oriental languages." Notwithstanding the investigations of Weber, Benfey, Fausböll, Kuhn, and others of whose labours, so far as we know them in this remote part of the globe, we cannot speak but with the highest terms of commendation—the study of the Pali is yet, I apprehend, far from being extensively pursued by Europeans; and the full extent of the progress which that language has made in Ceylon, and its refinement and purity are imperfectly appreciated even by those who have made Philology their Whilst numerous grammatical works in favourite study. the Sanskrit and other Indian dialects have been published from time to time both in India and Europe, not a single treatise on Pali grammar has wet appeared, if we except the translation of Balavatara made in Ceylon; and although several Koshas or lexicons have been likewise published of the former, it is indeed a fact that no Dictionary of the latter language has yet made its appearance in any part of the world save Ceylon, where too, from many local disadvantages, nothing has been effected beyond the Abhidhanappadipika and the Dhâtu Manjûsa published by the Revd. B. Clough; and a Pali Dictionary (still in MS.) compiled by the Revd. D. J. Gogerly, the Principal of the Wesleyan Mission in Ceylon. When again we perceive that a material advance

has been made by Europeans in the study of the Sanskrit; and the historical, doctrinal and metaphysical works perpetuated in that tongue, have been nearly all translated into European languages, it is indeed not a little to be regretted that in those branches of learning no Pali works have been published (if we except the *Dhammapadam* and *Kammawakya*) beyond the Mahawansa, and various selections from Pali writers, contributed by the Honble. George Turnour, Mr. L. De Zoysa Modliar, and the Revd. D. J. Gogerly.

Amongst all the monuments of Pali literature, the sacred books of Buddha present such a profitable subject of study to the Christian Missionary, on account of the matters therein treated of-which, when thoroughly examined, cannot fail to produce the most valuable materials for the displacement of Buddhism—that one would have naturally thought it had engaged his most earnest attention both in Ceylon and in the Burman Empire. It is however not so. If we except the valuable contribution of the Revd. C. Bennet, of the American Baptist Union, in Burma, entitled the Malalangara Wattoo, and the life of Gótama by a Roman Catholic Bishop (I believe Bigandet is his name), there is nothing to recount beyond the labours of the Revd. B. Clough, the Revd. D. J. Gogerly of Ceylon, and the Revd. P. D. Silva of the Wesleyan Mission, to whose valuable researches the public are highly indebted for various Buddhistical tracts in the pages of periodical literature.

It will be thus seen that the merit of Pali research belongs to those connected with Ceylon, where the Pali books have been preserved with the reverence accorded to the Buddhist religion. So accurately correct are our books in comparison with the same works on the continent of India, that Mr. Hodgson, who had been long of a different opinion, was latterly compelled to admit—'that the honours of Ceylonese literature and of the Pali language were no longer disputable.'

THE LATE KENJIU KASAWARA.

[The following obituary notice of a young Buddhist priest, Kenjiu Kasawara, appeared in the *Times* of September 22. We reprint it here; with a few additional notes of the writer, Professor Max Müller.]

"SIR,—The last mail from Japan brought me the weak the death of my young friend and pupil, Kenjiu Kasanara, and though his name is little known in England, his death ought not to be allowed to pass unnoticed. Does not Mr. Ruskin say quite truly that the lives we need to have written for us are of the people whom the world has not thought of—far less heard of—who are yet doing the most of its work, and of whom we may learn how it can best be done? The life of my Buddhist friend was one of the many devoted, yet unfulfilled lives, which make us wonder and grieve, as we wonder and grieve when we see the young fruit trees in our garden, which were covered with bright blossoms, stripped by a sudden frost of all their beauty and promise.

"Kenjiu Kasawara was a young Buddhist priest who, with his friend Bunyiu Nanjio, was sent by his monastery in the year 1876 from Japan to England, to learn English in London, and afterwards to study Sanskrit at Oxford. They both came to me in 1879, and in spite of many difficulties they had to encounter they succeeded, by dint of hard and honest work, in mastering that language, or at least so much of it as was necessary for enabling them to read the canonical books of Buddhism in the original—that is, in Sanskrit. At first they could hardly explain to me what their real object was in coming all the way from Japan to Oxford, and their progress was so slow that I sometimes despaired of their success. But they themselves

did not, and at last they had their reward. Kasawara's life at Oxford was very monotonous. He allowed himself no pleasures of any kind, and took little exercise; he did not smoke, or drink, or read novels or newspapers. He worked on day after day, often for weeks seeing no one and talking to no one but to me and his fellow-worker, Mr. Bunyiu Nanjio. He spoke and wrote English correctly, he learnt some Latin, also a little French, and studied some of the classical English books on history and philosophy. might have been a most useful man after his return to Japan, for he was not only able to appreciate all that was good in European civilization, but retained a certain national pride, and would never have become a mere imitator of the His manners were perfect—they were the natural manners of an unselfish man. As to his character, all I can say is that, though I watched him for a long time, I never found any guile in him, and I doubt whether, during the last four years, Oxford possessed a purer and nobler soul among her students than this poor Buddhist priest. Buddhism may, indeed, be proud of such a man. During the last year of his stay at Oxford I observed signs of depression in him, though he never complained. I persuaded him to see a doctor, and the doctor at once declared that my young friend was in an advanced stage of consumption, and advised him to go home. He never flinched, and I still hear the quiet tone in which he said, 'Yes, many of my countrymen die of consumption.' However, he was well enough to travel and to spend some time in Ceylon, seeing some of the learned Buddhist priests there and discussing with them the differences which so widely separate Southern from But after his return to Japan his Northern Buddhism. illness made rapid strides. He sent me several dear letters. complaining of nothing but his inability to work. control over his feelings was most remarkable. When he took leave of me, his sallow face remained as calm as ever. and I could hardly read what passed within. But I know that after he had left, he paced for a long time up and down the road, looking again and again at my house, where, as he

told me, he had passed the happiest hours of his life. Once only, in his last letter, he complained of his loneliness in his own country. 'To a sick man,' he wrote, 'very few remain as friends.' Soon after writing this he died, and the funeral ceremonies were performed at Tokio on the 18th of July. He has left some manuscripts behind, which I hope I shall be able to prepare for publication, particularly the 'Dharmasangraha,' a glossary of Buddhist technical terms, ascribed to Någårguna. But it is hard to think of the years of work which are to bear no fruit; still harder to feel how much good that one good and enlightened Buddhist priest might have done among the 32 millions of Buddhists in Japan. H. e., pia anima! I well remember how last year we watched together a glorious sunset from the Malvern Hills, and how, when the Western sky was like a golden curtain, covering we knew not what, he said to me, 'That is what we call the Eastern gate of our Sukhâvatî, the Land of Bliss.' looked forward to it, and he trusted he should meet there all who had loved him, and whom he had loved, and that he should gaze on the Buddha Amitabha--i.e. 'Infinite Light.'

" Oxford, Sept. 20.

F. MAX MÜLLER."

I may add that I possess an English translation of I-tsing's Nân-hâi-ki-kwêi-nêi-fâ-kwhân, made by Kasawara, during his stay at Oxford. It is not complete, and he hoped to finish it after his return to Japan, where a new edition of the Chinese text is now being published from an ancient Corean copy, collated with several Chinese editions. With the help, however, of Mr. Bunyiu Nanjio and some other scholars, I hope it will be possible before long to publish Kasawara's translation of that important work.

When I said that the Dharmasangraha was ascribed to Nagarguna, I ought to have added that Nagarguna's authorship of the book rests only on the title at the end of the two MSS. which exist in Europe. There we read, Iti Nagargunapadavirakitayam Dharmasangrahak samaptak. This is evidently a wrong, or, at all events, an imperfect title. It would be easy to correct it into virakito 'yam Dharma-

sangrahah, but that would make Någårguna responsible for a number of technical terms of which it is very doubtful whether they could have existed at so early a date. It is true we could say that terms of a decidedly modern character might have been added to the Dharmasangraha from time to time. There are differences between the two MSS. of the Dharmasangraha, and they show that words and even classes of words were added at a later time. There is, besides, the Chinese translation by Sh'-hu (a.d. 980-1000), in which several sections of the Sanskrit text are wanting, while other sections are found there which do not occur in our text (see B. Nanjio, Catalogue, No. 812).

What is still more important is that Någårguna is not mentioned by the Chinese translator as the author of this Buddhist glossary.

It was Mr. Kasawara who, after copying long extracts from the Pragñâ-pâramitâ and its commentary by Nâgârguna, suggested to me that our list of terms might have been collected from Nâgârguna's commentary, and that the title might have been originally intended for something like Iti Nâgârgunapâdavirakitâyâm Pragnâpâramitâvrittau Dharmasangrahah. He adds, "This conjecture is very weak, and not worth mentioning." I think, on the contrary, that it is a conjecture of which many a scholar might be proud.

Our great difficulty is the exact age of Någårguna. There is Någårguna, the Bodhisattva, called Lun-shu, i.e. dragontree, the fourteenth patriarch; whose life was translated by Kumåragîva, about 400 A.D. (B.N. Cat. 1461). Among the 21 (not 24) works ascribed to him the Dharmasangraha is not mentioned. But there is a curious letter of his, called Arya-Någårguna-bodhisattva-suhrillekha, which ought here to be mentioned. It was translated three times, first by Guṇavarman, A.D. 431; secondly by Saṅghavarman, A.D. 434 (not 534); and thirdly by I-tsing, A.D. 700-712. I-tsing says that the Buddhists in the five parts of India commit these lines to memory when they begin to study their religion. He adds that the letter was addressed by the Bodhisattva Någårguna to his old patron (Dånapati), a great

king of the South, who was called So-to-pho-hân-na, i.e. Sadvâhana, and whose proper name was Sh'-yen-töh-kiâ or Shân-tho-kiâ.

Here is the translation of the letter, as taken from I-tsing's Chinese translation, made during his stay at Tâmralipti:—

"O-thou of complete virtue, I shall explain the law of suchness (tathâtvam), to acquire holy merit (on my part). I shall expound the truest goodness; listen to me with full attention. This verse will be called the Noble Gîtâ.

As an image, whatever its materials be, when carved, is worshipped by all the wise, so, despite of my verse so unskilfully made, let it not be slighted, for the meaning is in accordance with the good law.

Although thou, O King, hast already been acquainted with the law of suchness (tathâtvam), yet hear further the words of Buddha, so that thou mayest increase thy understanding and excellence. As a wall well painted is brighter still when illumined by the moon, is not the beauty of a thing increased, when it meets with one still more beautiful?'

(Adoration to) the Buddha, the Religion, and the Community! All who keep the precept of generosity, the gods, who respectively accumulate their virtuous actions—they should always be intent on the teaching of Buddha.

In the practice of the virtuous actions of ten kinds (Dasakusalakarmapatha), the body, speech, and mind 1 are the most essential (actors). Let us refrain from all kinds of spirituous liquor (which lead the body, etc., to insanity), so that we may live a pure life.

Know that treasures are not constant—such is their state; and give them, as of right, to holy men. All, both poor and twice-born, will (thereby) be intimate friends in the coming births.

Every virtue has its stand on Sila, as all things prosper on (good) soil. Let us practise with constancy, as we are taught by Buddha.

¹ See Cowell, Journal of Philology, vol. iii. p. 215; Dhammapada, v. 96; Sacred Books of the East, vol. x. p. 28.

Generosity, good conduct, forbearance, energy, meditation and wisdom are ineffable and incomparable. Let us practise these, because they alone enable us to attain that shore. He is a Buddha who has crossed over the sea of births."

So far the letter. But who is the King to whom it is addressed? It is natural to suppose that he was a Sâtavâ-hana, a king in Southern India, and belonged to the Andhra-bhritya dynasty. On referring, however, to the names of the sovereigns of that dynasty, as given in the Purânas, there is no name like Sh'-yen-töh-kiâ, or Shân-tho-kiâ. One might have thought of that corrupt name Kivilaka or Vivilaka, but the more authoritative reading is Ivîlaka or Apitaka (see Vishnu. Pur. transl. by Wilson, ed. F. Hall, vol. iv. p. 196).

Fortunately we are now in possession of far more trust-worthy documents on the Sâtavâhana dynasty, thanks chiefly to the labours of Pandit Bhagvânlal Indraji. But on referring to his last essay on "Nasik, Pându Lena Caves," in the Bombay Gazetteer, we look again in vain for anything corresponding to the Chinese name. It cannot be Sâtakarni, or, in Pâli, Sadakâni, unless the Chinese transliteration is supposed to be very corrupt. The only Sanskrit names that one might guess at under the strange Chinese disguises are Gi-in-ta-ka or Gñâtaka, possibly Getrika or Dhyâtrika.

Hiouen-thsang confirms the tradition of Någårguna having been the friend of Såtavåhana. When speaking of Kosala (I. p. 185), he says that at a small distance, south of the town, there was an old monastery built by Asoka, and that later Någårguna established himself there, patronized by King Såtavåhana. He adds that the famous Bodhisattva Deva came from Ceylon to see Någårguna and learn from him. In another place (I. p. 274) Hiouen-thsang speaks again of Någårguna as the contemporary of Deva, and alludes to the "Four Suns," Någårguna in the West, Deva in the South, Asvaghosha in the East, and Kumåragîva in the North, as if they had lived at the same time. Lastly, he returns more fully to the same subject in vol. iii. p. 95, and we there learn from his translation of the name Såtavåhana by

In-ching, "he who leads the good," that he probably read the name as Sadvâhana.

In conclusion, I may notice two traditions, one, first mentioned by Wilson (Works, vol. iii. p. 181), that Sâtavâhana is a synonym of Sâlivâhana, the enemy of Vikramâditya, and another, first noticed by Colebrooke (Misc. Essays, ii. p. 89), that Hâla, the name of the collector of the 700 popular verses (Saptasatakam), is a known title of Sâlivâhana (see also Weber, Saptasataka, p. 2). On the real date of Nâgârguna, as the contemporary of Kanishka, I have touched in my Lectures on "India, what can it teach us?" p. 304.

I am afraid I have rather wandered away from the chief subject of this notice, but as I and Kasawara had often discussed these questions together, I leave what I have written, hoping that I may soon find time to arrange all the materials which we collected for an edition of the Dharmasangraha, and to publish them as a lasting monument of my late friend and pupil, Kenjiu Kasawara.

Oxford, 5 Nov. 1883.

F. Max Müller.

Note.—I have just time to add that the Tibetan translation of Någårguna's letter, which I asked Dr. Wenzel to examine for me, gives the King's name as Utrayana, a Tibetan corruption for Udayana (see Târanâtha's Geschichte des Buddhismus, übersetzt von Schiefner, p. 2, n. 2; p. 71). This Udayana, as we learn from the same Târanâtha, p. 303, was also called Antivâhana, which Schiefner doubtfully identifies with the Greek name Antiochos, but of which there is a various reading, Sântivâhana (l.c. p. 304). What is most satisfactory is that, according to Târanâtha, Udayana, when a boy, was called Getaka (l.c. p. 303). This shows again the great value of the Tibetan translation of Buddhist texts, which, as a rule, are far superior to the Chinese translations. I hope that my young friend, Dr. Wenzel, will soon give us some more of the results of his valuable researches in Tibetan literature.

BUDDHA.

[The following graceful verses are reprinted by the kind permission of both author and editor, from the Spectator of the 15th September, 1883.]

Whoe'er hath wept one tear or borne one pain, (The Master said and entered into rest)

Not fearing wrath nor meaning to be blest,

Simply for love—howbeit wrought in vain—

Of one poor soul, his brother, being old

Or sick, or lost through satisfied desire,

Stands in God's vestibule, and hears his Choir

Make merry music on their harps of gold.

What is it but the seed of Very Love
To teach sad eyes to smile, mute lips to move?
And he that for a score of centuries
Hath lived; and calls a continent his own,
Giving world-weary souls Heaven's best surprise,
Halts only at the threshold of the Throne.

Addington Park, Croydon.

A. C. BENSON.

NOTES AND QUERIES ON PASSAGES IN THE MAHÂVAGGA.

The publication of Professor Oldenberg's text of the Vinayapitaka may be said to have inaugurated a new era in the systematic study of Pâli. With a text and in part also a translation before us, the first ground is fairly broken, and the time seems to have come when special criticism may profitably be applied to particular passages and phrases of these renowned scriptures.

I have responded to an invitation to publish these few notes in the Journal of the Pâli Text Society, not so much for the importance of the phrases or words that I have attempted to elucidate—though in several cases this is considerable—but rather because I feel that a Society like ours offers very exceptional opportunities for the interchange of opinions embodying something of the characteristic criticism both of the East and of the West.

In Mahâvagga, Bk. I. Ch. 5 ("Brahmayâcana kathâ") at the end (§ 12) occurs the following gâthâ:

Apârutâ tesam amatassa dvârâ ye sotavanto pamuñcantu saddham |

Vihimsasaññî pagunam na bhâsi dhammam panitam manujesu Brahme 'ti ||

which is thus translated (Max Müller's "Sacred Books of the East," vol. xiii. "Vinaya Texts," tr. Davids and Oldenberg, p. 88):

'Wide opened is the door of the Immortal to all who have ears to hear; let them send forth faith to meet it. The Dhamma sweet and good I spake not, Brahmâ, despairing of the weary task, to men.'

The first difficulty of this passage is that, at first reading, the Buddha appears to be made to say 'let men relinquish faith,' which of course, in this unqualified form at all events, would be as foreign to the spirit of Buddhist, as of Hindu or Christian, teaching. To obviate this difficulty, the translators attribute to the verb pamuñcati a meaning which I venture to think it will be found hard to substantiate. 'Send forth' can be easily verified as a meaning for the root, but 'send forth to meet,' on which the whole point of the rendering depends, is unexampled in either Pâli or Sanskrit dictionaries.

On the contrary, among the examples quoted in Böhtlingk and Roth, s.v. (pra-) muc, the literal usages nearest to the sense of 'send forth' are passages where the verb is used, (absolutely, as required, without an ablative case) of 'emitting' a sound or a fluid. But such 'sending forth' is a very different thing from sending forth a kind of despatch or deputation of welcome, which, I take it, is the meaning that most English readers would attach to the phrase employed.

Among the metaphorical usages quoted for pramue, it is curious to observe that in Mahabharata III. 10819 we get the diametrically opposite sense of relinquishing sin, in the phrase 'sarvam papam pramokshyasi.'

The question thus naturally arises, how can we modify our rendering of saddham so as to suit the ordinary meanings of pamuñcati?

The solution that originally suggested itself to me was to take saddham as equal not to 'çraddhâm' 'faith,' but to 'çrâddham' 'an offering to the Manes.' But as authority for this I have only Childers's citations from the Abhidhânappadîpikâ, which is a somewhat late authority for the language of so early a book as the Mahâvagga. In connexion with this proposal I proceed to the consider-

ation of the first word in the following line, vihimsasaññî, which I would render 'conscious of the cruelty [of It is almost needless to observe how very mankind].' characteristic of Buddhistic thought is such a use of 'cruelty' as typical of all vice or evil; indeed, we may say characteristic of Indian thought in general, comparing passages like Hitopadeça 19, 22 (ed. Schlegel), where we find "dharmaçâstrânâm 'ahimsâ paramo dharmâ' ity aikamatyam." On this showing, the train of thought would be: 'I exhort the understanding few to relinquish the fleshly and often life-destroying observances of the old religion; to the many I have not [as vet] preached, because I am conscious of their cruelty and wickedness.' Doubtless, at any time from the days of Aqvalayana to the present, the gråddha may well have been selected as one of the most prominent and typical observances of every-day Brahmanism.

I now turn to the explanation of this passage as given in the commentary. As, unfortunately, no English library possesses a Mahavagga-commentary, I consulted the MS, at Paris, and was subsequently favoured by M. Léon Feer, of the Bibliothèque Nationale, with two very kind and interesting letters, from which I extract all that bears on the passage; venturing at the same time, with some regret, to render it into English, that no point may escape our readers in the East. M. Feer writes:

"I send herewith the commentary on the stanza of the Brahmayâcanagâthâ according to the Samanta Pâsâdikâ (commentary on the Mahâvagga), and according to the Sârattha Pakâsinî (commentary on the Saṃyutta-nikâya), the first represented by two MSS., one Burmese, the other Sinhalese; the second by a single Siamese MS.

Apârutâ¹ ti vivata || amatassa dvarâ ti ariyamaggo || so hi amatasankhâtassa nibbânassa dvâram² || || Pamuñ-cantu saddhan ti sabbe attano³ saddham pamuñcantu

 $^{^{-1}}$ Aparutânîti, Sinhalese MS. $^{-2}$ dvaram so maya vivaritvâ thamito ti da-seti, Siamese. $^{-1}$ artană, Siam

vissajjentu^{1*} || pacchimapadadvaye ayam attho || || Aham hi attano pagunam ²suppavatti³ imam panîtam ⁴uttamam dhammam ⁵kâyavâcâkilamattha saññi hutvâ² manujesu devamanussesu nâbhâsi⁵ ||

You will see that there are slight differences between the two MSS. of the Samanta Pâsâdikâ, and that the Sarâttha-Pakâsinî agrees in effect with the Samanta Pâsâdikâ, notwithstanding certain differences.

There must have existed a various reading for the words pamuñcantu saddham. I do not know whether its trace is to be found in the Pâli canon, but the Tibetan version, the Dulva, reveals it to us; for our stanza is found there. Now the whole pada is there translated as follows:

Now som-ñi is the ordinary translation of the Sanskrit kânkshâ 'desire,' whose Pâli equivalent kankha is rendered by 'doubt' in Childers. Whether we translate 'doubt' or 'desire' in the passage before us, a satisfactory sense is obtained. But it is evident in my judgment that the translator of the Dulva had before him a text reading kankham instead of saddham, and a different verb from pamuñcantu. It would have been so easy for him to put down dad pa spon jig, or some analogous expression, that the translator must certainly have worked on a text which did not include the word saddham, and it is inadmissible to suppose that he allowed himself to emend the text.

I think, then, that there are one or more various readings for this pada; only, it would be interesting to discover their trace in Pâli literature. Now, all that we know, whether text or commentary, gives us the reading pamuñcantu

^{1*} Om. Burm.; 'jjantu, Siam. 2... 2 suppavattim pi imam paṇitam uttamadhanmak' 'attham saññità hu', Sinh. 3 Sampavattitam pi, Siam. 4 uttamadh', Siam. 5 ... 5 'vàcâkilapatha saññi hutvâ na bhâsi, Siam.

saddham, as adopted without dispute; only, this reading is a little troublesome to interpret.

I now call your attention to a stanza in Lalita-vistara, Bk. xxv., which corresponds with that before us. It runs thus in the edition of the *Bibliotheca Indica* [p. 520]:

apâvritâs teshâm amritasya dvârâ
Brahmann iti satatam ye çrotavantah | 1
praviçanti çraddhâ na vihethasañjñâ
çrinvanti dharmam Magadheshu sattvâh ||

The last pada has one syllable too few, and the MSS. [at Paris] have between the two last padas, i.e. between vihethasañjñà and crinvanti, the letters npûnah,2 which are embarrassing. But with this difficulty I am not at present concerned, turning rather to the consideration of the words pravicanti craddha, which correspond to pamuñcantu saddham in the Pâli. In the edition of the Bibliotheca Indica, craddhâ is interpreted in a foot-note by craddhâvântah. But we might read craddhâm; or again praviçantu and çrinvantu. Whatever be the conclusion, I direct your attention to this passage, and would further note that the Tibetan translation, which here lacks its usual exactness, and especially disturbs the order of the padas (a tolerably frequent occurrence), unites into a single (Tibetan) pada the Sanskrit words crotavantah praviçanti çraddhâ. It thus renders them:

rna-ba ldan jin dad-pa ldan gyurla aures habentes et fidem habentes facti çrotavantan (praviçanti) çraddhâ

The Tibetan version does not authorize the correction of praviçanti to praviçantu; but it gives no indication for or against that of çraddhâ to çraddhâm. It interprets 'having faith,' without giving a special translation of the word praviçanti. The writer may perhaps have read prabhavanti, and have intended to represent that word by gyur-la in the translation.

¹ çrotravantaḥ, Cambridge MSS. ² punaḥ, Camb. MSS.

I believe that the compiler of the Lalita-vistara corrected the text of the Vinaya, or else selected a stanza which it had been proposed to substitute for that of the Vinaya. I consider the Tibetan text as a various reading, or—which amounts to the same thing—a very ancient emendation of the text of the Mahâvagga. The text of the Lalita-vistara I regard as a later various reading, i.e. as an emendation properly so-called, which arose from the difficulties of interpretation."

The field of criticism opened to us by this most suggestive letter is very large.

One point, however, seems to come out clearly amid the curious perplexities of the passage, namely, that we have before us the remnant, at all events, of an early and widely diffused utterance of Buddhist teaching, a simple and striking metaphor which one would fain attribute to Gotama himself. This consideration may serve to excuse the development of what was originally intended as a short note into a somewhat lengthy excursus.

First, then, with regard to the Sanskrit of the Lalitavistara, it seems to me that the variation from the Pâli is due, in part at least, to a cause different from either of those suggested by M. Feer.

In the same chapter, at p. 517 of the printed text, we get, at the beginning of a long passage of verse, the following gatha:

vâdo babhûva samalair² vicintito dharmo hy açuddho³ Magadheshu pûrvam | amṛitam mune tad vivṛiṇîshva dvâraṃ çṛiṇvanti dharmavipulaṃ⁴ vimalena buddham ||

I think, then, that the gâthâ first quoted is a deliberate adaptation from the Pâli, suggested by the language, particularly by the image of 'opening the door of amrita' in

As to the importance of this book in connexion with the study of Pali, it is hardly necessary to refer to Prof. Oldenberg's most interesting paper in the Verhandlungen' of the Congress of Orientalists at Berlin, 1881 (II. n. p. 115).
Salilai, Cambridge MSS.

mo viguddho, ibid.

⁴ dharmam vi', ibid.

the verse (just cited) which had preceded, itself probably founded on the original form of our Pâli gâthâ or some saying closely resembling it.

This supposition will account for the presence of the three words crinvanti dharmam Magadheshu, which are represented in the other Sanskrit verse, but are not in the Pâli, and form, in fact, the chief discrepancy between the Sanskrit and Pâli.

Unfortunately, the Sanskrit passages, though interesting in themselves, give us no direct help for the interpretation of our chief crux, pamuñcantu saddham. It may be observed, however, that the adjective vihethasañjñâ has the ordinary and literal sense, which I would assign to vihimsasaññî, in contradistinction to the metaphorical meaning given by the translators, and apparently by the Pali commentary, though it is in agreement with a different poun.

Returning now to the question of more strictly Pâli

¹ Possibly, too, sañjña has acquired the meaning noted by M. Senart for sañjñin (Mahavastu, p. 375).

I and here a 1ew observations on the passages of the Lalita-vistara concerning points that have less bearing on the Pali text.

The metrical difficulty in crimvanti may perhaps be solved by reading or promotecing crimuvanti, as if the root ended in a consonant. In the phrase praviquent, graddhâ, I have no doubt that craddhâ is for craddhavâ. Compare the Vedic usage, e.g. dhârâ for dhârayâ in Rigy, ix. 98, 2, and the anaice of Souns for the locative feminae in âm in this gâthâ-dialect: e.g. remadascit ha for Tayam, cited by Dr. E. Müller in his paper in A. Kuhn's Bestiage zur vergl. Sprachforschung, viii. 274.

Wire regard to the encient versions, the kind help of Prof. Douglas has stabled me to consult the two Chinese works stated to be translations of the Legite-vistura. The older of these (No. 160 in Mr. Burgin Nanjio's Catalogue) turns out to be not a translation of the Sanskrit text as known to as. The clay-sion into chapters is different, and the correspondences of language are only recasional. A case like this should put us on our guard in accepting the statements of Chinese works, such as that extend by Mr. Nanjio, as to supposed federalations from the Sanskrit. The second Chinese version (No. 150) of the wirth century w.b., though it represents tarrly well the Sanskrit of Chapter xxv., enriously enough substitutes a a flerent verse for the gatha beginning apavorable, at but translates that beginning vado bablidas. Whether thes sto fruition points to the existence of a text anterior to the adaptation I have supposed, or is simply due to the difficulty of the verse, it is of course, hard to say.

As to the other version, the Tibetan, I will only call the attention of those who may consult Foncaux's Tibetan text and French translation to the word in the next line: itag-tu, which seems to represent the Sanskrit sutatem, though the French does not show this.

criticism above raised, I note first that the commentary takes pamuñcantu, in its ordinary sense of 'relinquish,' but seems to understand the whole phrase as equivalent to 'let all relinquish the faith that each feels in his own religion.' I confess that this, if I rightly interpret it, seems to me somewhat strained; and I see no sense to be got by connecting attano as an ablative with vissajjentu.

To M. Feer's note on the Tibetan word som-ni, which I have not been able to verify, I will only add a suggestion that if kankham was before the Tibetan translator, the immediate stage between the two readings may have been the form sankam, which approximates to the one word in meaning and to the other in form.

I conclude this note, already too far extended, I fear, by a request that if any reader of this Journal can cite any further authority for saddha = crâddha, he will make it known. For I cannot but think that this interpretation, if it can be substantiated, gives the sense that is at once the most simple and the most consistent and harmonious.

Mahâvagga I. 13, § 1. yonisomanasikâra. Can any member of the society offer any explanation of the usage of yoniso so as to trace it to an intelligible derivation? The account in Childers s.v. is not very satisfactory. Cf. Senart, Mahâv. p. 371.

I. 15, § 6. Ingha tvam . . . anujanahi agyagaran. = "Come now, you grant me . . ." This use of ingha (=agedum) suggests a derivation from the Sanskrit anga, which occurs as an emphatic vocative particle in Panini and early Sanskrit; and likewise in Buddhist Sanskrit, e.g. in the Lankavatara, ch. 1., leaf 9b 5 of the R.A.S. MS., "Kim anga punar dharmadharmayoh . . . viçesho na bhavati? Bhavatyeva:" For the sound-changes it will suffice to refer to instances given in Kuhn's Beiträge zur Pali Grammatik. Thus we have i from a before ing in mutinga for Sansk. mridanga; for the aspiration, which is rarer for soft than for hard consonants, singhato and singhatakam, corresponding to the Sansk. cringata.

I. 22, §16. Bimbisârassa etad ahosi: kattha . . . bhagavâ

vihareyya, yam assa . . . divâ appâkinnam rattim appasaddam appanigghosam vijanavâtam manussarâhaseyyakam patisallânasâruppam.

This is translated (Vinaya Texts, I. 143): 'Where may I find a place for the Blessed One to live in . . . by day not too crowded, by night not exposed to much noise and alarm, clean of the smell of men, well fitted for a retired life?'

Though, for the sake of convenience, I have quoted the context, it is of the interpretation of the word vijanavâtam only that I would speak. Like Drs. Davids and Oldenberg, I understand this compound to refer to the atmosphere of the Buddha's proposed dwelling, but I analyze its parts differently. They clearly construe, so to say, vi- 'without,' jana-vâta 'people-air,' i.e. 'the polluted air of crowded or frequented places.' The notion conveyed in the last expression is familiar enough to those who, like myself, are engaged in large public institutions; but I doubt whether, if this was what the compiler of this early text intended, he would have expressed it by a compound so bald and liable to misconstruction as jana-vâta.

I therefore propose to divide the word not vi-janavâta, but vijana-vâta, and translate accordingly, 'having its air from an unfrequented place,' or 'breathing the wind of the wilderness.'

The meaning thus obtained does not differ widely from that of the published translation (and I trust the learned translators will not consider me hypercritical for calling attention to it), but it seems to me to yield slightly better sense, and likewise to be in far better accordance with the analogy of such compounds. To illustrate the use of each member of the compound as I divide it, I cite a couple of examples taken from Böhtlingk and Roth: (1) malayavâta 'wind from Malaya,' Vikramorvaçî, 25, where vâta is used at the end of an ablatival compound; (2) vijanasevin, Kathâsaritsâgara, 7,195, where vijana is used substantively as the first member of a compound.

British Museum, 1884.

KHUDDASIKKHÂ AND MÛLASIKKHÂ.

EDITED BY

DR. EDWARD MÜLLER.

THE Khuddasikkhâ and Mûlasikkhâ form a short compendium of the Vinaya, mostly in verse, a few passages only being given in prose. The MSS, of the same are all written in the Burmese character, and there is also a Burmese edition which comprises the Bhikkhupâṭimokkha, the Bhikkhupâṭimokkha and the Abhidhammatthasamgraha, printed at Rangoon in 1882; we possess, however, a Sinhalese commentary belonging to the twelfth century, which proves that the books must have been known in Ceylon at that time.

About the age of the books it is very difficult to form a certain opinion. The language is rather more modern than that of the Mahâvamsa, and exigencies of the metre have introduced forms which are anything but classical; for instance, the optative de from dâ, the metathesis harampaccâ for paccâharam, III. 5, and the frequent elision of a beginning vowel after anusvâra, which only occurs in late texts (see Childers, s.v. peyyâlam, and J.R.A.S. vol. xi. p. 112). The language is, however, not so artificial and not mixed with Sanskritisms to such an extent as that of the Dâthâvamsa.

Alwis, in his introduction to the Sidat Sangarâwa, p. cl, assigns a rather early date to Khuddasikkhâ and Mûlasikkhâ, viz. A.D. 350, but without any sufficient reasons. It seems that the language of the Sinhalese commentary has misled him, a language only little more modern than that of the rock inscription of Mihintale (see my Ancient Inscriptions in Ceylon, No. 121), the date of which Alwis, following Turnour (Ceylon Almanac for 1834, p. 137), has fixed in A.D. 262. It was, however, already shown by Paul

Goldschmidt that this cannot be correct, and that the inscription belongs to Mahinda III. at the end of the tenth

and beginning of the eleventh century.

The question about the age of Khuddasikkhâ and Mûlasikkhâ is, of course, quite independent from that about the commentary, and so we may still consider the statement from the Burmese histories of the Pitaka adduced by Forchhammer in his Report, p. 5, that a Sinhalese priest, by name Dhamma Siri, wrote the Mûlasikkhâ, and a confrere Mahâsâmi the Khuddasikkhâ, about 920 years after Gautama's death. In fact, the name of the author of Khuddasikkhâ is given as Dhammasiri in the last stanza but one:

tena Dhammasirîkena Tambapanniyaketunâ therena racitâ dhammavinayaññupasamsitâ.

Under these circumstances, I must leave it undecided the present whether the date as given by Alwis and Forchhammer is correct, or whether we should in fixing it consider the language, which rather points to the sixth or seventh century. I will only mention besides that both works are referred to in the great inscription of Parâkramabâhu at the Galwihâra, Polonnaruwa (see my Ancient Inscriptions in Ceylon, No. 137), in lines 19 and 22, and that the great grammarian Moggallâna, living at the same time, is said to have written a tîkâ on Khuddasikkhâ, which may have been the base of the Sinhalese commentary still in existence (see Note on the Pâli Grammarian Kaccâyana, by Lieut.-Col. G. E. Fryer, in his Subodhâlankâra, p. 4).

At the end of the text will be found a comparative list of passages in Khuddasikkhâ and Mûlasikkhâ on one side and Oldenberg's Vinaya on the other. In spite of a careful investigation, I have not succeeded in identifying all the passages of the two texts given here, and I am driven to the conclusion that these passages are not contained in the text of the Vinaya, but are taken from the commentaries. In a few cases I have succeeded in identifying passages from Samanta Pâsâdikâ and Kankhâ Vitarani with the help of the quotations given in Minayeff's edition of the Pâtimokkha.

KHUDDASIKKHÂ.

Namo tassa bhagavato arahato sammâsambuddhassa.

Mâtikâ.

- 1 Âdito upasampannâ sikkhitabbam samâtikam khuddasikkham pavakkhâmi vanditvâ ratanattayam
- 2 Pârâjikâ ca cattâro garukâ navacîvaram rajanâni ca patto ca thâlakâ ca pavâranâ
- 3 Kalika ca patiggaho mamsesu ca akappiyam nissaggiyani pacitti samana kappabhûmiyo
- 4 Upajjhâceravattâni vaccapassâvaṭhânikam âpucchakaranam naggo nhânakappo avandiyo
- 5 Cammam upâhanâ ceva anolokiyam añjanî akappiyasayanâni samânâsaniko pi ca
- 6 Asamvâsiko ca kammam micchâ jîvavivajjanâ vattam vikappanâ ceva nissayo kâyabandhanam
- 7 Paṭhavî ca parikkhâro bhesajjuggahadûsanam vassûpanâyikâ cevâvebhangiyam pakinnakam
- 8 Desanâ chandadânâdi uposathappavâranâ samvaro suddhi santoso caturakkhâ vipassanâ ti.

I. Pârâjikâ ca cattâro ti.

- 1 Maggattaye anikkhitta sikkho santhatasanthate allokâse nimittaṃsaṃ tilamattaṃ pi santhataṃ
- 2 Asanthatamupâdinnam pavesanto cuto 'thavâ pavesanathituddhâra pavitthakkhanasâdako
- 3 Adiyeyya hareyya vâ hareyya iriyâpatham kopeyya thânâ câveyya samketam vîtinâmaye

- 4 Adinnam theyyacittena bhave pârâjiko 'thavâ theyyâ balakusacchanna parikappâvahârako
- 5 Bhaṇḍakâlagghadesehi paribhoge tha nicchayo manussaviggaham cicca jîvitâ vâ viyojaye
- 6 Sattham vâ assa maranacetano upanikkhipe gâheyya maranûpâyam vadeyya marane gunam
- 7 Cuto payogâ sâhatthi nissaggânatti thâvarâ iddhivijjâmayâ kâlavatthâvudhiriyâpathâ
- 8 Kriyâviseso okâso cha âṇattiniyâmakâ jhâṇâdibheda no santam attanattupanâyikaṃ
- 9 Katvâ kotthâsam ekekam paccuppannabhavassitam aññapadesarahitam dîpento nâdhimâniko kâyena vâcâ viññatti pathe ñâte cuto bhave
- 10 Pârâjikete cattâro asamvâsâ yathâ pure abhabbâ bhikkhubhâvâya sîsacchinno va jîvitum
- 11 Pariyâyo ca ânatti tatiye dutiye pana ânatti yeva sesesu dvayam etam na labbhati
- 12 Sevetukâmatâ cittam magge maggappavesanam imam methunadhammassa âhu angadvayam budhâ
- 13 Manussasanthatâ saññî theyyacittam ca vatthuno garukâ avahâro ca adinnâdânahetuyo
- 14 Pâņo manussako pâņasaññitâghâtacetanâ payogo tena maranam pañcete vadhahetuyo
- 15 Asanthatâ attani pâpamicchatâ yâ rocanâ tassa manussajâ titâ
 - naññappadeso ca tadeva jânanam pañcettha angâni asantadîpane
- 16 Asâdhâranâ cattâro bhikkhunînam abhabbatâ ekâdasa ca vibbhantâ bhikkhunî mudupitthiko
- 17 Lambimukhena ganhanto angajâtam parassa ca tatthevâbhinisîdanto cattâro anulomikâ
- 18 Magge maggappavesanâ methunassa idhâgatâ cattâro ti catubbisa samodhânâ pârâjikâ ti.

II. Garukâ navâ ti.

- 1 Mocetukâmatâ sukkassupakkamma vimocayam aññatra supinantena samano garukam phuse
- 2 Itthisaññî manussitthim kâyasamsaggarâgavâ

- samphusanto upakkamma samano garukam phuse
- 3 Tathâ suṇanti viññam ca maggam vârabbha methunam duṭṭhullavâcâ râgena obhâsento garum phuse
- 4 Vatvattakâmupatthânavannam methunarâgino vâcâ methunayuttena garum methunayâcane
- 5 Paţiggahetvâ sandesam itthiyâ purisassa vâ vîmamsitvâ haram paccâ samano garukam phuse
- 6 Samyâcitaparikkhâram katvâ desita vatthukam kuţim pamânâtikantam attuddesam garum phuse
- 7 Mahallakam vihâram vâ katvâ desitavatthukam attano vasanatthâya samano garukam phuse
- 8 Amûlakena codento codâpento ca vatthunâ antimena ca câvetum suṇamânam garum phuse
- 9 Aññassa kiriyam disvâ thenalesena codayam vatthunâ antimenaññam câvetum garukam phuse
- 10 Châdeti jânam âpannam parivaseyya tâvatâ careyya samghe mânattam parivuttho cha rattiyo cinnamânattam abbheyya tam sangho vîsatiggano
- 11 Âpattinukkhittam anantarâya pahuttatâyo tathâ saññitâ ca
 - châdetukâmo atha châdanâ ti channâ dasangehyarunuggamamhi ti.

III. Cîvaran ti.

- Khomakoseyyakappâsasânabhangâni kambalam kappiyâni chaletâni sănulomâni jâtito
- 2 Dukûlañ ceva patṭunnapatisomâracînajam iddhijam devadinnañca tasso tassânulomikam
- 3 Ticîvaram parikkhâracolam vassikasâṭikam adhiṭṭhe na vikappeyya mukhapuñchanisîdanam
- 4 Paccattharanakam kanducchâdim ettha ticîvaram navaseyyavinekâham câtumâsam nisîdanam
- 5 Imam sanghâtim dhitthâmi sanghâtim iccadhitthake ahatthapâsam etan ti sesesu pi ayan nayo
- 6 Adhitthahanto sanghâţi pabhûti pubbacîvaram paccuddharitvâdhittheyya pattâdhitthahane tathâ
- 7 Etam imam 'va sanghâţim samse paccuddharâmîti evam sabbâni nâmena vatvâ paccuddhare vidû

- 8 Sanghâți pacchimantena dîghaso mutthipancako uttamantena sugatacîvarûnâpi vațțati
- 9 Mutthittikan ca tiriyam tathâ ekamsikassa pi antaravâsako câpi dîghaso mutthipañcako
- 10 Addhateyyo dvihattho vâ tiriyantena vaţţati nisîdanassa dîghena vidatthi dve pi sâlato
- 11 Diyaddham dasa vidatthi sugatassa vidatthiya kanduppatichadikassa tiriyam dve vidatthiyo
- 12 Dîghan tato catasso vâ sugatassa vidatthiyâ vassikasâţikâya pi dîghaso cha vidatthiyo
- 13 Tiriyam addhateyyo 'va sugatassa vidatthiyâ ettha chedanapâcitti karontassa tad uttari
- 14 Paccatharamukhacolâ âkankhitappamânikâ parikkhâracole gananâ pamânam vâ na dîpitam
- 15 Tathâ vatvâ adhittheyya thavikâdim vikappiyam ahatâhatakappânam sanghâti digunê siyê
- 16 Ekacciyottarasango tathâ antaravâsako utuddhatânam dussânam sanghâţi ca catugguņâ
- 17 Bhaveyyum digunâ sesâ pamsukûle yathâruci tîsu dve vâpi ekam vâ chinditabbam paheti yam
- 18 Sabbesu appahontesu anvâdhim âdiyeyya vâ achinnam ca anâdinnam na dhâreyya ticîvaram
- 19 Gâme nivesane uddositapâsâdahammiye nâvaţţamâţaârâme satthakhettakhaţe dume
- 20 Ajjhokâse vihâre vâ nikkhipitvâ ticívaram bhikkhusammutiyaññatra vippavatthum na vaṭṭati
- 21 Rogavassapariyantâ kanducehâdikasâtikâ tato param vikappeyya sesâ apariyantikâ
- 22 Paccattharaparikkhâramukhapuñchanacolakam dasam pyarattanâdinna kappam labbham nisìdanam
- 23 Adasam rajitam yeva sesa cîvarapancakam kappatâdinnakappam va sadusam va nisîdanam
- 24 Anadhitthita nissattham kappetvå paribhuñjaye batthadîghan tatopaddhavitthârañ ca vikappiyam
- 25 Ticîvarassa bhikkhussa sabbam etam pakâsitam parikkhâracoliyo sabbam tathâ vatvâ adhitthahi
- 26 Acchedavissajjanagâhavibbhamâ paccuddharo mâraṇalingasikkhâ

- sabbesvadbiṭṭhâna viyogakâraṇâ nibbiddhachiddañ ca ticîvarassa pi
- 27 Kusavâkaphalakâni kambalam kesavâlajam thullaccayam dhârayato 'lûkapakkhâjinakkhipe kadalerakakkadusse potthake câpi dukkaţam
- 28 Sabbanîlakamañjetthapîtalohitakanhake mahârangamahânâmarangaratte tirîtake
- 29 Acchinnadîghadasake phalapupphadase tathâ kañcuke vethane sabbam labhati chinnacîvaro ti.

IV. Rajanâni câti.

- 1 Mûlakkhandhatacapattaphalapupphappabhedato rajanâni chabbidhâni anuñiñâtâni satthunâ
- 2 Mûle haliddim khandhe ca mañjetthatungahârake allim nîliñ ca pattesu tace loddañ ca kandulam kusumbham kimsukam pupphe sabbam labbham visajjiyâ ti.

V. Patto câti.

- 1 Ayopatto bhûmipatto jâtiyâ kappiyâ duve ukkattho majjhimo ceva omako ca pamânato
- 2 Ukkattho magadhanali dvayatandulasadhitam ganhati odanam supam byanjananca tadupiyam
- 3 Majjhimo tassupaddho 'va tatopaddho 'va omako ukkaṭṭhato ca ukkaṭṭho apatto omakomato
- 4 Atirekapatto dhâreyya dasâhaparamaṃsako kappo nissaggiyo hoti tasmiṃ kâle 'tinâmite
- 5 Acchedadânagâhehi vibbhamâ maranuddhatâ lingasikkhâ hi chiddena patto 'dhitthânam ujjhati
- 6 Pattam na ppaţisâmeyya sodakam na ca otape unhena niddahe bhûmyâ na thape no ca laggaye
- 7 Midhante paribhandante ange vâ âtapattake pâdesu mañcapîțhe vâ țhapetum na ca kappati
- 8 Na nîhareyya ucchitthe dakañ ca calakatthikam pattena pattahattho vâ kapâṭam na ppaṇâmaye
- 9 Bhummi âdhârake dâru daṇḍâdhâresu sajjite duve patte ṭhapeyyekam nikkujjitvâna bhummiyam
- 10 Dâru rûpiyasovanna maniveluriyâmayâ

kamsakâ ca tipusîsaphalikâ tambalohajâ

11 Chavasîsamayâ câpi ghatitumbakatâhajâ
pattâ akappiyâ sabbe vuttâ dukkatavatthukâ ti.

VI. Thâlakâ câti.

- 1 Kappiyâ thâlakâ tisso tambâyomattikâmayâ dârusovannarajatamaniveluriyâmayâ
- 2 Akappâ phalikâkâ ca kamsajâ gîhisantakâ samghikâ kappiyâ tumbaghatijâ tâvakâlikâ ti

VII. Pavâranâ ti.

- 1 Yeniriyâpathenâyam bhuñjamâno pavârito tato aññena bhuñjeyya pâcitti nâtirittakam
- 2 Asanam bhojanañceva abhihâro samîpatâ kâyavâcâ patikkhepo pañcaangâ pavâranâ
- 3 Odano sattukummâso maccho maṃsaṃ ca bhojanaṃ sâli vîhi yavo kangu kudrûsavaragodhumâ
- 4 Sattannam esam dhaññânam odano bhojjayâgu ca sâmâkâdi tinam kudrûsakevaraka corako
- 5 Varake sâliyañ ceva nivâro samgaham gato bhatthadhaññamayo sattu kummâso yavasambhavo
- 6 Mamso ca kappiyo vutto maccho udakasambhavo bhuñjanto bhojanam kappamakappam vâ nisedhayam
- 7 Vâritobhihatam kappam tam nâmena iman ti vâ lâjâ tam sattubhattâni goraso suddhakhajjako
- 8 Taṇḍûlâ bhaṭṭhapîṭhañ ca puthukâ veluâdinam bhattam vuttâvasesânam rasayâgurasopi ca
- 9 Suddhayâguphalâdîni na janenti pavâranam pavâritena vuţţhâya abhuttena ca bhojanam
- 10 Atirittam na kâtabbam yena yam vâ purekatam kappiyam gahitañ cevuccâritam hatthapâsagam atirittam karontevam alam etam ti bhâsatu
- 11 Na kare 'nupasampannahatthagam pesayitvâpi kâretum labhate sabbo bhuñjitum tam akârako ti

VIII. Kâlikâ câti.

 Paţiggahitvâ cattâro kâlikâ yâvakâlikam yâmakâlikam sattâhakâlikam yâvajîvikam

- 2 Pittham mûlam phalam khajjam goraso dhaññabhojanam yâgu sûpappabhûtayo hontete yâvakâlikâ
- 3 Madhumuddikasâluka cocamocambujambujam phârusam naggisantattam pânakam yâmakâlikam
- 4 Sânulomâni dhaññâni thapetvâ phalajo raso madhûkapupphâ aññatra sabbo puppharaso pi ca
- 5 Sabbapattaraso ceva thapetvâ pakkadâkajam sitodamadditodicca pâko vâyâmakâliko
- 6 Sappi nonîtatelâni madhu phânitam eva ca sattâhakâlikâ sappi yesam mamsam avâritam
- 7 Telam tilavaseranda madhu sâsapasambhavam khuddabhamara madhukari makkhikâhi katam madhu
- 8 Rasâdi ucchuvikati pakkâpakkâ ca phânitam savatthu pakkâ sâmam vâ vassakâle amânusâ
- 9 Aññesam na pace vatthum yâvakâlikavatthukam haliddim singiverañ ca vacattham lasunam pacâ
- 10 Usiram bhaddamuttañ câtivisam kaţurohinî pañca mûlâdikañ câpi mûlam tam yâvajîvikam
- 11 Viļangamaricam gothaphalam pippalirājikā tiphalerandakādînam phalam tam yāvajîvikam
- 12 Kappâsanimbakuţajapaţolasulasâdinam sûpeyyapannam vajjetvâ pannam tam yâvajîvikam
- 13 Mûlam sâram taco pheggu phalam pannam puppham latâ âhârattham asâdhentam sabbam tam yâvajîvikam
- 14 Sabbakâlikasambhogo kâle sabbassa kappati sati paccaye vikâle kappate kâlikattayam
- 15 Kâlasâmamatikkantâ pâcittim janayantubho janayanti ubho pete antovuttañ ca sannidhim
- 16 Sattâhakâlike satta ahâni atinâmite pâcitti pâļinârûļhe sappi-âdimhi dukkaţam
- 17 Nissattham laddham makkheyya nangam najjhohareyya ca
 - vikappentassa sattâhe sâmanerassâdhitthato
- 18 Makkhanâdiñ canàpatti aññassa dadato pi ca yâvakâlika-âdîni saṃsaṭṭhâni sahattanâ
- 19 Gâhâpayanti sabbhâvam tasmâ evamudîritam pure patiggahîtañ ca sattâham yâvajîvikam
- 20 Sesakâlikasammissam pâcitti paribhuñjato

yâvakâlikasammissam itaram kâlikattayam 21 Paṭiggahîtam tadahu tadaheva ca bhuñjaye yâmakâlikasammissam sesam evam vijâniyam sattâhakâlimissañ ca sattâham kappatetaram ti

IX. Patiggaho ti.

- 1 Dâtukâmâbhihâro ca hatthapâseraṇakkhamam tidhâ dente dvidhâ gâho pañcangevaṃ paṭiggahc
- 2 Asamhâre tattha jâte sukhume ciñca âdinam panne vâ sayhabhâre ca patiggaho na rûhati
- 3 Sikkhâmaraṇalingehi anapekkhavisaggato acchedânupasampanna dânâgâhopasammati
- 4 Appatiggahîtam sabbam pâcitti paribhuñjato suddhañ ca nâtibahalam kappate udakam tathâ
- 5 Angalaggam avicehinnam dantakkhikannagûthakam lonassukhelasinghânam semhamuttakarîsakam
- 6 Gûthamattikamuttâni chârikañ ca tathâvidhe sâmam gahetvâ seveyya asante kappakârake
- 7 Durûpacinne rajokinne attuggahapatiggahe antovutihe antopakke sâmam pakke ca dukkatan ti

X. Maṃsesu ca akappiyan ti.

- 1 Manussahatthiassânam mamsam sunakhadîpinam sîhabyagghataracchânam acchassa uragassa ca
- 2 Uddissakatamamsañ ca yañ ca appativekkhitam thullaccayam manussânam mamse sesesu dukkatam
- 3 Atthi pi lohitam cammam lomam esam na kappati sacittakam va uddissa katam sesam acittakan ti

XI. Nissaggiyâni ti.

- Arûpiyam rûpiyena rûpiyam itarena ca rûpiyam parivatteyya nissaggi idha rûpiyam
- 2 Kahâpano sajjhûsingîvohârûpagamâsakam vatthamuttâdi itaram kappam dukkatavatthu ca
- 3 Imam gahetvâ bhutvâvâ imam dehi karânaya demi vâtisamâpanne nissaggikayavikkaye
- 4 Attano aññato lâbham sanghassaññassa vâ natam parinâmeyya nissaggî pâcitti câpi dukkatam

5 Anissajjitvâ nissaggim paribhuñje na deyya vâ nissattham sakasaññâya dukkatam aññathetaran ti

XII. Pâcittîti.

- 1 Musâvâdomasâvâde pesuññaharane tathâ padaso dhammasâgârâ ujjhâpanakakhîyane
- 2 Talasatti anâdarakukkuccuppâdanesu ca gâmappavesanâpucchâ bhojane ca paramparâ
- 3 Anuddharitvâ gamane seyyam senâsanâni vâ itthiyaddhânagamane ekekâyanisîdâne
- 4 Bhimsapanakotana-aññavade vihesadutthullapakasacchade hasodake nicchubhane vihara pacitti vuttanupakhajjasaye ti

XIII. Samanakappâ ti.

- 1 Bhûtagâmasamârambhe pâcitti katakappiyam nakhena vâggisatthehi bhave samanakappiyam
- 2 Samûlakhandhabîjaggaphalubîjappabhâvato ârambhe dukkaţam bîjam bhûtagâmaviyojitam
- 3 Nibbattabîjam no bîjamakatam câpi kappati katâhabandhabîjâni bahiddhâ vâpi kâraye
- 4 Ekâbaddhesu bîjesu bhâjane vâpi bhûmiyam kate ca kappiyekasmim sabbesveva katam bhave
- 5 Nikkhitte kappiyam katvâ mûlapannâni jârayum kappiyam puna kâreyya bhûtagâmo hi so tadâ
- 6 Sapanno vå apanno vå sevalodakasambhavo cetiyadisu sevalo nikkhantadvittipattako
- 7 Bhûtagâmo va bîjam pi mûlapanne viniggate ghaţâdi piţţhasevâlo makulam ahichattakam
- 8 Dukkatasseva vatthûni phullam abyavahârikam lâkhâniyyâsachattâni allarukkhe vikopiya
- 9 Ganhato tattha pâcitti chindato vâpi akkharam pîletúm nâlikerâdim dârumakkaţakâdinâ
- 10 Chinditum gandikam kâtum tinâdim na ca kappati bhûtagâmam vâ bîjam vâ chinda bhindocinâhi vâ
- 11 Phâlehi vijjhupacavâ niyametvâ na bhâsaye imam karohi kappiyam imam ganhedam âhara imam dehi imam sodhehevam vattati bhâsitun ti.

XIV. Bhummiyo ti.

- 1 Sammutussâvanantâ ca gonisâdi gahappati kappiyâ bhummiyo yâsu vuttham pakkañ ca kappaţi
- 2 Vâsatthâya kate gehe sanghike vekasantake kappiyakuţi laddhabbâ sahaseyyappahonake
- 3 Gehe sanghassa vekassa karamânevam îrayam paṭṭhamiṭṭhakathambhâdim ṭhapeyyussâvanantikâ
- 4 Kappiyakutim karoma kappiyakutim karomâti. yebhuyyenâparikkhitto ârâmo sakalo pi vâ
- 5 Vuccati gonisâdîti sammuti sanghasammatâ bhikkhum thapetvâ aññehi dinno tesam vasantako
- 6 Atthâya kappakutiyâ geho gahapatim ato akappakutiyâ yattha sappiâdîhi missitam
- 7 Vajeyya antovuţţhat'am purimam kâlika dvayam teneva bhikkhunâ pakkan kappate yâvajîvikam
- 8 Nirâmisam va sattâham sâmise sâmapâkaţâ ussâvanantikâyehi thambhàdîhi adhiţţhitâ
- 9 Tesu yevâpanîtesu tadaññesu pi titthati bhabbesu apanîtesu bhave jahitavatthukâ goņisâdi parikkhitte sesâ chadanavibbhamâ ti

XV. Upajjhûceravattânîti.

- I Nissâyupajjhâcariye vasamâno supesalo dantakatthâsanam toyam yâgum kêle dade sadâ
- 2 Patte vattam care gâmappavese gamanâgame âsane pâdapîțhe ca kațhalopâhanacîvare
- 3 Bi. ojuniyapāniyesu vaccappasāvathānīsu vihārasodhane vattam puna pañāāpane tathā
- 4 Na pappotheyya sodherto pativâte ca p' angane vihârum bhikkhupâṇiya sâmantâ sayanâsanam
- 5 Nhane nhatassa katabbam rangapake ca dhovane sibbane civare theve rajanto na vaje thito.
- 6 Ekaceassa anàpucchâ pattam vâ eîvarîni vâ na dadeyya na ganheyya parik'hârañ ca kiñcanam
- 7 Ekuccum pacchato kâtum gantum vâ kassu pacchato pindapâtam ca ninnetum niharâpetum attano
- 8 Kiccayam parikammam vâ kesacchedañ ca attano kârâpetum vâ kâtum vâ anâpucchă na vaţţati

- 9 Gâmam susânanissîmam disam vâ gantum icchato attano kiccayam vâpi anâpucchâ na vaṭṭati
- 10 Uppannam aratim ditthim kukkuccam vâ vinodaye kareyya vâpi ussukkam sanghâyattesu kammesu
- 11 Gilâne ca supattheyya vutthânam nesam âgame vattabhedena sabbattha anâdarena dukkatan ti

XVI. Vaccapassâvațhânikan ti.

- 1 Na kareyya yathâvuddham vaccam yâthânupubbiyâ vaccapassâvakutiyo nhânatittham ca labbhati
- 2 Paviseyyubbhajitvâ no sahasâ paviseyya ca ukkâsitvâ vubbhajeyya pâdukâsveva santhito
- 3 Na kare nitthunam vaccam dantakattham ca khâdayam vaccapassâvadoṇinam na kareyyubhayam bahi
- 4 Kûpe kattham na pâteyya khelam passâvadoniyâ nâvalekheyya pharuse nûhatañ câpi dhovaye
- 5 Na nikkhameyya sahasâ vubbhajitvâ na nikkhame capu capu nâcameyya uklâpañ ca visodhaye ti

XVII. Ápuchakaraṇan ti.

- 1 Anajjhittho va therena pâtimokkham na uddise dhammam na kathaye pañham na pucche na ca vissaje
- 2 Âpucchitvâ kathentassa punavuddhatarâgame puna âpucchanam natthi bhattagge cânumodato
- 3 Vasanto ca anâpucchâ vuddhenekavihârake na sajjhâyeyya uddesam paripuccham va no dade
- 4 Dhammam na bhâsaye dîpam na kare na ca vijjhape vâtapânam kavâṭam vâ vivareyya thakeyya ca
- 5 Cankame cankamanto pi vuddhe na parivattaye yena vuddho sa sanghâți kannenenam na ghattaye ti

XVIII. Naygo ti.

- 1 Naggo maggam vaje bhuñje pive khade na sâyaye na ganhe na dade neva vande vandâpayeyya vâ
- 2 Parikammam na kâreyya na kare paţicchâdîsu parikamme duve vattâchâdi sabbatthakappiyâ ti

XIX. Nhâna kappo ti.

- 1 Na ca nhâyeyya therânam purato pari vâ tathâ dadeyya otarantânam maggam uttaramânako
- 2 Kuddathambhatarutthane nhayamano na ghamsaye kayagandhabbahatthena kuravindakasuttiya
- 3 Mallakenaññamaññam vâ sarîrena na ghamsaye kapâlitthakakhandâni vatthavaddhi ca vattati
- 4 Sabbesam puthupâni ca gilânassâkatamallakam pâsânaphenakathalâ kappanti pâdaghamsane ti

XX. Avandiyo ti.

1 Ukkhittânûpasampanna nânâsamvâsaitthiyo navo ca garukattho ca pandako ca avandiyâ ti

XXI. Camman ti.

- I Migâjelakacammâni kappanti paribhuñjitum rohitenipasadâ ca kurungâ migajâtikâ
- 2 Anuñiâtattayâ añiam cammam dukkatavatthukam thavikopâhane cammam sabbam kappati mânusan ti

XXII. Upâhanâ cerâ ti.

- 1 Majjhadesena kappanti gananganupahana nava sabbassa kappantarame sabbatthakallakassa ca
- 2 Sabbanîlakaodâtapîtalohitakanhakâ mahârangamahânâmarangarattâ upâhanâ
- 3 Sabbamañjetthikâ citrâ nîlapîtâdivaddhikâ tittirapattikâ mendaajavisânavaddhikâ
- 4 Khallabaddhâ puṭabaddhâ tûlapuṇṇâ cupâhanâ pâḷiguṇṭhimakâ morapicchena parisibbitâ
- 5 Vicehikàlikatâ sîhabyagghuddâjinadvîpinam majjârakâlakolûkacammehi ca parikkhatâ
- 6 Pâdukâ sankamaniyâ koci dhâreyya dukkaṭam nîlâdivannam sakalam muñcitvâvekadesakam upâhanâvalañjeyya hâretvâ khallakâdikan ti.

XXIII. Anolokiyan ti.

1 Sâratto itthiyâ yonim mukham vâ bhikkhadâyivâ parassa pattam ujjhânasaññî vâ attano mukham âdâsodakapatte vâ olokentassa dukkatan ti.

XXIV. Anjanîti.

- 1 Vattätthasolasamsåvåmatthå vattati anjanî tisso pi mûle gîvâyam lekhâ ekâvabandhitum
- 2 Yam kiñci rûpam mâlâdikammam makaradantakam gomuttakaddhacandâdi vikâram nettha vaṭṭati
- 3 Labbhekavannasuttena sibbitum thavikâ tathâ sipâţikuñcikâ koso salâkâ pi acittakâ
- 4 Sankhanâbhivisânatthinaladantamayâ tathâ phalakatthamayâ velulâkhâlohamayâ pana
- 5 Añjanîyo salâkâyo dhûmanettâ ca labbhare tathâ chattakadandâni natthu dhânâ ca tammayâti

XXV. Akappiyasayanânîti.

- 1 Âsandi tûlipallanko paţikam gonacittakan paţali vikati uddhalomi ekantalomikâ
- 2 Kuttam koseyyam katthissam hatthiassarathattharâ 'jinappavenikadalimigappavarâ attharâ.
- 3 Salohitavitânaññu bhato rattupadhânakam akappiyâni etâni dukkaṭam paribhuñjato
- 4 Âsandâdittayâ sese labbhate gihisantake dhammâsane ca bhattagge ghare vâpi nisîditum
- 5 Bhummattharaṇasankhepe sayituñ câpi kappati caturaṃsapiṭṭhâ sattangâ pañcanguṭṭhapâdakâ
- 6 Tûlonaddhâ ghareyeva mañcapîthâ nisîditum coļavâkuṇṇapaṇṇânam tiṇânañ ceva pûritâ
- 7 Cîvaracchaviyo pañcabhisiyabbatthakappiyâ tulattayam bhisigabbho lomâni migapakkhinam
- 8 Bimbohane anuññâtam tulavajjam masûrake manussalomapuṇṇâyam paṇṇe puppham tamâlakam suddham na âsanañ ceva labbhamappaṭivekkhitan ti.

XXVI. Samanasaniko cati.

- 1 Tivassantarânuñiâtam bhikkhûnam ekam âsanam sattavassativassehi pañcavasso nisîditum
- 2 Thapetva paṇḍakam itthim ubhatobyañjanam muni dîghâsane anuññâsi sabbeheva nisîditum

3 Antam dîghâsanam tinnam yam pahoti nisîditum mañcake vâpi pîţhe vâ dvinnam labbham nisîditun ti

XXVII. Asamrâsiko câti.

1 Ukkhitto nûpusampanno bhikkhunicchinnamûlako nânâsamvâsanissîmathitavehâsasanthitâ ekâdasa abhabbâ ca asamvâsâ ti dîpitâ ti.

XXVIII. Kammañ câti

- 1 Adhammakammam vaggena samaggena adhammikam vaggena dhammakamman ca samaggena ca dhammikam
 - 2 Catuttham yevânuññâtam sesakammesu dukkatam catuvaggo pañcavaggo dasavîsativaggiko
 - 3 'Tirekavîsativaggo pañca sanghâ vibhâvitâ catuvaggo 'ttha abbhânûpasampadappavâranâ
 - 4 Pañcavaggo ca abbhânam majjhadesûpasampadam dasavaggo ca abbhânam thapetvâ sabbakammiko
 - 5 Itaro sabbakammesu kammappatto 'ti dîpito catuvaggena kattabbe cattâro pakatattakâ
 - 6 Kammappattâpare chandâ rahâ sese pyayam nayo catuvaggâdi kattabbam asamvâsakammârahâ
 - 7 Garukatthesvaññataram katvâna ganapûranam parivâsâdikam kammam katam kuppañeadukkatam
 - 8 Adhammakammam vâreyya antarâye duve tayo diţihâvim eko 'dhiţihânam vârente 'vatato 'dhikâ
- 9 Kammârahâ asamvâsâ khittacittadukkhattitâ etesam sanghamajjhamhi patikkhepo na rûhati
- 10 Pakatatte asîmatthasamayam vâsabhikkhuno ârocentassantamaso nantarassâbhirûhati
- 11 Kopetum dhammikam kammam patikoseyya sammukhâ tirokkhâ kâyasâmaggî chandam nodeyya dukkatan ti.

XXIX. Micchâjîvavivajjanâ ti.

- Dârum velum phalam puppham cunnam nhânamukhodakam
 - mattikâ dantakaṭṭhâdim na dade kulasangahan
- 2 pâribhattakatâ muggasuppatâ vatthuvijjayâ

pahenadûtakammena janghapesaniyena vâ

3 Anuppadânappaţipindavejjakammena vâ pana nâññena vâpi sambuddhapaţikuţthena jîvaye

4 Viññattinesanâbhûtullapanâkuhanâdîhi kuladûsâdinuppannapaccaye parivajjaye ti

XXX. Vattan ti.

- 1 Âgantuko na ârâm: m pavise saupâhano sachatto gunthito sîse karitvâ vâpi cîvaram
- 2 Pâniyena na dhoveyya pâde vuddhatare pi ca âvâsike bhivâdeyya puccheyya sayanâsanam
- 3 Gamiko paţisâmetvâ dârumattikabhandakam vikârañ ca thaketvâna âpucchâ sayanâsanam
- 4 Âpucchitabbe asati sangopetvâna sâdhukam pakkameyyaññathâ tassa pakkantum na ca kappati
- 5 Âvâsiko paññâpeyya vuddhâgantussa âsanam upanikkhipe pâdodappabhûtim pattacîvaram
- 6 Paccuggantvâna ganheyya pâniyena ca pucchaye âgantuke 'bhivâdeyya paññâpe sayanâsanam
- 7 Âjjhâvuttham avuttham vâ vgocarâ gocaram vade vaccappassâvathânâni katikam sekkhasammutim.
- 8 Pavesanikkhame kâlam paribhojaniyapâniyam nisinno va navakassa etam sabbam samuddise ti

XXXI. Vikappanâ cerâ ti.

1 Sammukhâ parammukhâ ti duve vuttâ vikappanâ sammukhâya vikappento byattassekassa santike

imam cîvaram tuyham vikappemi ti bhâsaye

2 Ettâvatâ nidhetum va kappati na ca kappati paribhogâdikam tena apaccuddhaṭabhâvato

mayham santakam paribhuñja vâ visajjehi vâ yathâpaccayam vâ karohîti

- 3 Tena paccuddhate yeva paribhogâdi kappati aparâ sammukhâ vekâ bhikkhussekassa santike
- 4 Gahetvâ nâmam ekassa pañcannam sahadhamminam

imam cîvaram Tissassa bhikkhuno Tissâya bhikkhuniya Tissassa sâmanerassa Tissâya sâmaneriya Tissâya bhikkhamâ nâya vikappemi ti vattabbam. tena bhikkhunâ Tissassa bhikkhuno Tissâya bhikkhuniyâ Tissassa sâmanerassa Tissâya sâmaneriyâ Tissâya bhikkhamânâya santakam paribhuñja vâ visajjehi vâ yathâ paccayam vâ karohîti vattabbam.

parammukhâ vikappanâ ekassantevam îraye

imam cîvaram tuyham vikappanatthâya dammîti tena vattabbo. ko te mitto vâ sandiṭṭho vâtî. itarena ceva vattabbam Tisso bhikkhu ti vâ Tissâ vâ bhikkhunîti puna tenâham Tissassa Tissâya vâ dammi ti vikappite teneva Tissassa bhikkhuno Tissâya vâ bhikkhuniyâ santakam paribhunja vâ visajjehi vâ yathâpaccayam karohi paccuddharitabbam.

- 5 Dûrasantikattekattabahubhâvam vijâniya etam imanti etâni imâni te' ttha yojaye
- 6 Dasâham mâsam ekam vâ pañca vâ kathinatthate pâripûrattham ûnassa paccâsâsati mâsakam nuppâdayati nissaggim nâdhitthitam vikappitanti

XXXII. Nissayo ti.

- 1 Byattassa pañcavassassa natthi nissayakâriyam yâvajîvam pi abyatto nissito yeva jîvati
- 2 Ekamsam cîvaram katvâ pagganhitvâna anjalim ukkutikam nisîditvâ vade yâvatatiyakam

âcariyo me bhante hohi âyasmato nissâya vacchâmi ti

- 3 Pakkante pakkhasankante vibbhante câpi nissayo maranânattupajjhâya samodhânehi sammati
- 4 Nissâya na vase laggim apubbam thânam âgato âgame catupañcâham ñâtum bhikkhusabhâgatam
- 5 Addhikassa gilânassa gilânupatihâkassa ca yâcitassa araññevâ sallakkhentena phâsukam sabhâge dâyake sante vasitum tâva labbhatîti

XXXIII. Kâyabandhanan ti.

 Akâyabandhano gâmam dukkaṭam paviseyya ce bandheyya yattha sarati tatthevâsatiyâ gato

- 2 Pattikâ sûkarantanti duvidham kâyabandhanam dussapatto ca rajju ca etâ tadanulomikâ
- 3 Macchakantakakhajjûripattâ matthâ ca pattikâ labbhâ dasâ catasso pi ante diguņasuttakam
- 4 Mâlâdim kakkatacchâdim dassetvâ guṇasuttakam koṭṭitâ kuñjaracchâdim vaṭṭikâ na ca kappati
- 5 Ghatakam makaramukhâdim na kappanti dasâmukhe labhante ghatakâ lekhâ vidhe aññañ ca cittakam
- 6 Deddubhakañ ca murajam maddavinam kalâbukam na kappanti dasâsu dve majjhimâ yeva kappare
- 7 Veludantavisânatthi katthalâkhâ phalâmayâ sankhanâbhimayâ suttam nalalohamayâ pi ca vidhâ kappanti kappiyâ ganthiyo câpi tammayâti

PATHAMA-BHÂNAVÂRAM NITTHITAM.

XXXIV. Pathavî câti.

- 1 Jâtâjâtâ ti duvidhâ suddhamattikapamsukâ jâtâ daddhâ ca pathavî bahumattikapamsukâ
- 2 Câtumâsâdikovaţţhapamsumattikarâsî ca suddhasakkharapâsânamarumbakatavâlukâ
- 3 Daddhâ ca bhummi yebhuyya sakkharâdi mahî pi ca dutiyâ vuttarâsi ca câtumâsomavaṭṭhako
- 4 Dve bhâgâ tîsu bhâgesu mattikâ yassa bhummiyâ yebhûyya mattikâ esâ sesesu pi ayam nayo
- 5 Pâcitti khanane jâte jâtasaññissa dukkatam dvelhassâjâtasaññissa nâpattânâpane tathâ
- 6 Pahâre pahârâpatti khaṇamânassa attanâ ekâyâṇattiyâ ekâ nânâṇattîsu vâcaso
- 7 Imam thânam imam kandam idha vâpim khanettha ca jâlehaggin ti vâ vatthum niyametvâna vattati
- 8 Thambhassimassa âvâṭam mattikam jânamâhara karohi kappiyañ ceti vacanam vaṭṭatedisam
- 9 Asambaddham pathaviyâ sukkhakaddamaâdikam kopetum tanukam labbhamussiñ ca niyakaddamam
- 10 Ganduppâdam upacikâ mattikamûsikukkuram câtumâsâdhikovattham leddâdiñ ca na kopaye

- 11 Patitevâpi âdinam kule udakasantike pâsâne ca raje lagge patitena va sondiyâ
- 12 Vammike mattikâ kudde abbhokâsutthite tathâ yebhuyyakathalatthâne titthatitthakakuttako
- 13 Thambhâdim ganhitum bhûmim samcâletvâ vikopayam dhârâya bhinditum bhûmim kâtum vâ visamam samam
- 14 Sammajjanîhi ghamsitum kantakâdim pavesitum dassessâmîti bhindanto bhûmim cankamitum padam
- 15 Ghamsitum angapaccangam kandurogîtatâdisu hattham vâ dhovitum bhummim ghamsitum na ca kappati
- 16 Thambhâdim ujukuddhâro pâsânâdipavattanam sâkhâdikaddhanam rukkhalatâchedanaphâlanam
- 17 Sekopassâvaâdînam suddhacittassa vattati allahattham thapetvâna rajaggâho ca bhûmiyâ
- 18 Aggissa anupådåne kapåle itthakåya vå påtetum labbhate aggim bhûmiyam våvasesatî ti

XXXV. Parikkhâro ti.

- 1 Pañcavannehi suttehi anto bahi ca sibbitum girikûṭaḍḍhacandâdim chatte panne ca chinditum
- 2 Ghatakam vâļarûpam vâ daņde lekhâ na vattati vattati daņdabundamhi ahichattakasâdisam
- 3 Sibbitum ekavannena pañjaram vâ vinandhitum tirattam vaṭṭati chatte dande lekhâvabandhitum
- 4 Ante patṭamukhe vâpi venisankhalikâ pi vâ sûcivikâram aññam vâ cîvarena ca kappati
- 5 Kappabinduvikâram vâ pâlikannikaâdikam ganthipâsakapattâpi catukonâ va agghiyam
- 6 Muggaro kakkaţacchâdi vikâram nettha vaţţati konasuttâ ca pilakâ duviññeyyâvakappare
- 7 Gandham telam va lâkham vâ rajanena ca pakkhipe rattam sankhena maṇinâ ghatteyyaññena vâ na ca
- 8 Ghaṃseyya doṇiyaṃ katvâ pahârena ca muṭṭhinâ kaṇṇakoṇakasuttâni ratte chindeyya cîvare
- 9 Lekhâ na vattati dhammakarane chattavaddiyam lekham thapetvâ manikâ pilakâ kuñcikâya ca
- 12 Pipphale ca paricchedalekhâ dandamhi vattati

- målådyaraniyam pattamandale bhittikammañ ca
- 13 Hettha lekha dvayam uddham ahichattakasadisam hitva kattarayatthimhi sucisandasake pi ca
- 14 Yam kiñci girikûţâdi vannamattham na vattati bimbohanamhi sîmañca pitthâdisayanâsane
- 15 Sammuñjanimhi sankârachaddane rangabhâjane pânîyabhâjane pâdapîthe kathalikâya ca
- 16 Pattâdhârapidhânesu tâlavante ca bîjane yam kiñci mâlâkammâdi vannamatthamavâritam
- 17 Senâsane pana dvârakavâţâdippabhedane sovannamayam 'nuññâtam vannamaţţhamhi kâ kathâ
- 18 Visânanâlilâbâdippabhede telabhâjane pumitthirûparahitam vannamatthamavâritan ti

XXXVI. Bhesajjan ti.

- 1 Janassa kâtum bhesajjam dâtum vatthum na labbhati bhikkhâcariyaviññatti sakehi sahadhamminam
- 2 Pitunam tadupatthâkam bhikkhunissitabhandunam labbham bhesajjakaranam veyyâvaccakarassa ca
- 3 Mahâcûlapitâmâtâbhâtâbhaginîâdinam tesam sakenattaniye dâtabbam tâvakâlikam
- 4 Kuladûsanaviññattibhesajjakaranâdihi mâtâpitûhi sambandhañâtakesu na rûhati
- 5 Pindapâto anâmattho mâtâdînam avârito channam dâmaricorassa dâtum issariyassa ca
- 6 Tesam suttodakeheva parittam karenattano bhanitabbam bhanapente parittam sasanogadham
- 7 Sîlam dhammam parittam vâ âgantvâ detu bhâsatu dâtum vatthuñ ca labbhati gantvâ kenaci pesito ti

XXXVII. Uggaho ti.

- Kammacetiyasamghaññapuggalattham ganassa ca dasabhedam pi ratanam ugganhantassa dukkatam
- 2 Nissaggitesu attattham dvîsu sesesu dukkaţam anâmasitvâ vutte tu ganasamghaññapuggalam
- 3 Cetiyassa navakammassa dammîti na paţikkhipe vade kappiyakârânam vadantevam ime iti

- 4 Khettam vatthum talâkam vâ dente dâsapasvâdikam patikkhipitvâ ganheyya kappiyena kamena ca
- 5 Khettâdîni vihârassa vutte dammîti vattati navamâtikakedâratalâkakiriyâ nave
- 6 Mattikuddharanam bandho thirakâro ca âliyâ atirekabhâgâdânam kedâre anave nave
- 7 Aparicchinnabhâge ca sassede 'thettake iti kahâpanuṭṭhâpanañ ca sabbesam pi akappiyam
- 8 Avatvâ kasavapiccâ dettakâya ca bhûmiyâ patitthâpeti bhûmim vâ bhâgo deyyo ti etthako
- 9 Bhûmibâge katam sassam etthake ganhathetthakam ganhanattham vadantevam pamânam dandarajjûhi
- 10 Minane rakkhane thatvâ khaletam niharâpane kotthâdipatisâmane tassevetamakappiyam
- 11 Patisâmeyya pâcitti yam kiñci gihisantakam bhaṇḍâgârikasîsena same pi pitusantakam
- 12 Pitûnam kappiyam vatthum avassam patisâmiyam attano santakam katvâ labbhate patisâmitum
- 13 Dehîti paţisâmetvâ vutte câpi paţikkhipe pâtetvânagate labbham palibodho ti gopitum
- 14 Kammam karontâ ârâme sakam vaddhakiâdayo parikkhârañ ca sayanabhandam vâ râjavallabhâ
- 15 Dehîti paţisâmetvâ vadanti yadi chandaso na kareyya bhayâţhânam guttam dassetum vaţţati
- 16 Balakkârena pâtetvâ gatesu paţisâmitum bhikkhumanussâsankanti natthe vatthumhi tâdise
- 17 Vihârâ vasathassanto ratanam ratanasammatam nikkhipeyya gahetvâna magge 'raññe pi tâdise sâmikânâgamam ñatvâ paṭirûpam karissatîti

XXXVIII. Dûsanan ti.

- 1 Puppham velum phalam cunnam dantakatthan ca mattikam
 - sangahanattham dadato kuladûsanadukkatam
- 2 Thullaccayam garubhandam issarenettha samghikam dentassa dukkatâdîni theyyâsanghassa santakam
- 3 Kulasangahâropetum ropâpetum ca sabbathâ

- phalapupphupagam rukkham jaggitun ca na vattati
- 4 Nimittobhâsato kappavohâraparisâyato attano paribhogattham ropâpanâdi labbhati
- 5 Vuttâ va vejjikâ janghapesane gîhikammesu thapetvâ pitaro bhandum veyyâvaccakaram sakam
- 6 Dukkatam padavârena harane dûtasâsanam sâsanam agahetvâpi pathamam vadato puna
- 7 Uppannapaccayâ evam pañcannam pi akappiyâ abhûtâ rocanâ rûpasamvohâruggahâ disâ
- 8 Harâpetvâ haritvâpi pitûnam sesaññâtinam pattânam vatthupûjattham dâtum pupphâni labbhati
- 9 Mandanatthañ ca lingâdipûjatthañ ca na labbhati tathâ phalam gilânânam sampattissariyassa ca
- 10 Paribbayavihînânam dâtum saparasantakam bhâjente phalapupphamhi deyyam pattassa kassaci
- 11 Sammatenâpaloketvâ dâtabbam itarena tu vihâre vâ paricchijja katvâna katikam tato
- 12 Deyyam yathâ paricchedam gilânassetarassa vâ yâcamânassa katikam katarukkhâvadassiyâ
- 13 Sirîsakasâvâdînam cunne sese ca nicchayo yathâvuttanayo eva pannam ettha pavesaye ti.

XXXIX. Vassupanâyikâ cerâ ti.

1 Purimikâ pacchimikâ duve vassûpanâyikâ tathâlayapariggâho vacîbhedo ca îdiso

imasmim vihâre imam temâsam vassam upemi

- 2 Idha vassam upemîti cittuppâdettha âlayo nopetukâmo âvâsam tadahu 'tikkameyya vâ
- 3 Bhaveyya dukkatàpatti jânam vânupagacchato dutiyam upagaccheyya chinnavasso 'nupâgato
- 4 Na pakkameyya temâsam avasitvâna cârikam mâtâpitûnam atthâya pañcannam sahadhamminam
- 5 Gilânatadupatthâkabhattam esissam osadham pucchissâmi upatthissam gantvânâbhiratim aham
- 6 Vûpakâsissam kukkuccam ditthim garukam âdikam karissam vâpi kâressam vinodanam vivecanam
- 7 Vutthânam vâpi ussukkam gantum iccevamâdinâ

- labbham sattâhakiccena pahitâpahite pi ca
- 8 Samghakamme vaje dhammasavanattham nimantito Garûhi pahito vâpi garûnam vâpi passitum
- 9 Na bhandadhovanuddesañâtupatthâkadussane labbham na pâpuneyyajje vâyamissanti dûrato
- 10 Sesañâtîhi pesite bhikkhunissitakena ca upâsakopâsikâhi niddisitvâna pesite
- 11 Vassacchede anâpatti antarâye satattano saṃghasâmaggîyâvâno chinnavasso pavâraye
- 12 Ajjhokâse ca rukkhassa susire vitape pi vâ chavakutichattacâţîsûpagantum na vaţţati
- 13 Asenâsanikenâpi upagantum na labbhati pavâretuñ ca labbhati nâvâsatthavajûpago ti

XL. Avebhangiyan ti.

- 1 Arâmârâmavatthûni vihâro tassa vatthu ca mañco pîṭham bhisi bimbohanâdisayanâsanam
- 2 lohakumbhî katâho ca lohabhânakavârako kuthâri vâsi pharasu kuddâlo ca nikhâdanam
- 4 Thullaccayam bhâjayato bhâjitâpi abhâjitâ garubhandâni vuccanti ete 'vissajjiyâni ca
- 5 Valliddhabâhumattâpi velu atthangulâ yato tinâdimutthimattampi pannam ekam pi mattikâ
- 6 Pakatâ pañcavannâ vâ sudhâ kankutthaâdikâ tâlapattappamânâpi dinnâ vâ tattha jâtakâ
- 7 Rakkhitâ samghikâ rajjusottâdi pi abhâjiyâ nitthite bhâjiyâ kamme samghike cetiyassa vâ
- 8 Pattâdi bhikkhusâruppam tathâ vippakatâkatam bhâjiyam lohabhandesu vârakam pâdaganhakam
- 9 Velumhi bhâjiyâ telanâlikattaradandako chattadandasâlâkâyo tathopâhanadandako
- 10 Anuññâtavâsidando karando pâdaganhako aranañ ca nisingâdi bhikkhûpakaranam tathâ
- 11 Tacchitvâ niţthitam dârubhandan dautaŭ bhikkhûpakarane pâdaghaţako mattikâma

- 12 Bhâjiyam kappiyam cammam elacammam abhâjiyam garunâgarubhandañ ca thâvaran thâvarena ca
- 13 Thâvaram parivatteyya tathâ katvâ ca bhuñjitum vallâdiphâtikammena ganhe sesamabhâjiyan ti

XLI. Pakinnakan ti.

- 1 Sadvârabandhane thâne sodukkhalakapâsake sayantena divâ dvâram bandheyya parivattakam
- 2 Sante viññumhi purise âbhogo câpi kappati savasetam vinâkâram savanto dukkatam phuse
- 3 Ratanânitthirûpâni dhaññam itthipasâdanam turiyâvudhabhandâni âmasantassa dukkatam
- 4 Sittatelodatelehi phaṇahatthaphaṇehi vâ kocchena vâpi yo kese osaṇheyy'assa dukkaṭaṃ
- 5 Nekapâvuranâ ekattharanâ vâ tuvatteyyum tathekamañce bhuñjeyyum ekasmim vâpi bhâjane
- 6 Caturangulato ûnam adhikatthangulan tathâ dantakattham na khâdeyya lasunam na akallako
- 7 Hînukkatthehi ukkattham hînam vâ jâtiâdîhi ujum vaññapadesena vade dubbhâsitam davâ
- 8 Dîghe nakhe ca kese ca nâsalome na dhâraye na labbham vîsatimattam sambâdhe lomahâranam
- 9 Yathâvuddham na bâdheyya sanghuddiṭṭham va sanghikam
 - adhotaallapâdehi nakkame sayanâsanam
- 10 Sudhotapâdakam vâpi tatheva saupâhano sanghâţiyâ na pallatthe bhittâdim na apassaye
- 11 Parikammakatam sante udake no na âcame akappiyasamâdâne davâ sîlâpavijjhane
- 12 Desanâya sabhâgâya âvîkamme ca dukkaţam paţissavavisamvâde suddhacittassa dukkaţam
- 13 Paţissavakkhane eva pâcitti itarassa ca na rukkham abhirûheyya sati kicceva porisam
- 14 Apadâsu yathâ kâmam kappati abhirûhitum vinaddhânam vajantassa dukkaṭam parissâvanam
- 15 Yâcamânassa addhâne adadantassa dukkaṭaṃ thullaccayaṃ phuse aṅgajâtacchedena dukkaṭaṃ

- 16 Âbâdhapaccayaññatra sesange attaghâtane cittapotthakarûpâni na kare na ca kâraye
- 17 Na vuṭṭhâpeyya bhuñjantam ârâmâraññagehesu yânâni pumayuttâni sivikam hatthavaṭṭakam
- 18 Pâṭangim ca gilânassa kappate abhirûhitum buddham dhammañ ca sanghañ ca ârabbha karane davam
- 19 Dukkatam parisam vâpi aññassa upalâlane kâyam ûrum nimittam vâ bhikkhunînam na dassave
- 20 Vivaritvâ na siñceyya tâ kaddamudakâdinâ aganhato ca ovâdam na paccâharato pi ca
- 21 Bâlam gilânam gamikam vajjayitvâna dukkaṭam lokâyatam na vâceyya palitam na ca gâhaye
- 22 Pelâya pi na bhuñjeyya na kîle kiñci kîlitam pârupe na nivâseyya gîhipârupanam nivâ
- 23 Sanam kare samvelliyam dâyam âlimpayeyya vâ vaddhim payojaye yâce no natakapavârite
- 24 Attano paribhogattham dinnam aññassa no dade aggam gahetvâ bhûtvâvâ katipâham puno dade
- 25 Uddissayâcane rakkham ñatvâ natvâ va dandinam gîvâssa dandite dando svayam dandâpane pana
- 26 Dandassa agghabhedena ñeyyâ pârâjikâdikà harantesu parikkhâram coro coro ti bhâsite
- 27 Anatthàya sunganhante dandam gîvassatattakam vighâsuccârasankâram muttam chaddeyya dukkatam
- 28 Bahi pâkârakuddanam valanje nâvalokiya harite vâpi pihâdi nalikerâdiropime
- 29 Yojâpetum payojetum payuttâni ca passitum na labbham dhammayuttam pi naccam gîtam ca vâditam
- 30 Upuhâram karomâti vutte vâ sampatiechitum râjâgâram pokkharanim uyyânam cittâgârakam
- 31 Kîlattham gacchato datthum ârâmam dukkatam katam nave na patibâheyyâsanenunhena cîvaram
- 32 Nidaheyya khamapeyya garuna ca panamito akkosane parammukha apattihi ca sattahi
- 33 Bhikkhum upâsakam vâpi aññeneva ca dukkatam na labbham vinipâtetum sadâdeyyam ca cîvaram
- 34 Labbham pitûnam sesânam ñâtînam pi na labbhati

- vassam vuttho'ññato'ññatra bhâgam ganheyya dukkatam
- 35 Paṭideyya naṭṭhe jiṇṇe gîvâ nodeyya codito dhuranikkhepato tesaṃ hoti bhaṇḍagghakâriyo
- 36 Na santaruttaro gâmam kallo vâ saupâhano paviseyya na dhâreyya câmarikañ ca bîjanim
- 37 Agilâno na chindeyya kese kattariyâ bahi ârâmato no dhâreyya chattam labbhati guttiyá
- 38 Vaheyya 'nubhatokâjam ekantarikakâjakam sîsakkhandhakatî bhâro hatthalambo ca labbhati
- 39 Âpattiyâ anokâsakatam codeyya dukkaţam suddhassa ca avatthusmim tathâ okâsakârane
- 40 Atthangulâdhikammam ca patipâdam na dhâraye pakatangulâsattânam mañcam vâ uccapâdakam
- 41 Mûgabbatâdim ganheyya dukkatam titthiyabbatam khurabhandam parihare tathâ nhâpitapubbako
- 42 Yam kiñci yâcitum hatthakammam tadanusârato laddham gahetum nikkhammam ayâcitvâ pi kappati
- 43 Kâretum âharâpetum yam kiñci parasantakam gîhînam gopake dente gahetum deti yattakam
- 44 Laddham yathâ paricchedam sanghacetiyasantakam dvihâpajjeyya âpattim kâyavâcâhi vâ chahi
- 45 Alajjiñâṇakukkuccapakatattâsatiplavâ akappiye vâ kappiye kappâkappiyasaññitâ
- 46 Alajjiñânatâpattim kâyavâcâhi châdaye linge sanghe ganekasmim catudhâpattivuţthiti
- 47 Parikathobhâsaññatti na labbhâ paccayadvaye viññatti yeva tatiye sese sabbam pi labbhati
- 48 Na rûhataccaye dânam pañcannam sahadhamminam saṅghasseva ca tam hoti gihînam pana rûhati
- 49 Bhikkhu vâ sâmanero vâ mareyyum yadûpassaye bhikkhusangho và dâyajjo tattha sese pyayam nayo
- 50 Purimassevimam dinnam dehi netvâsukassa ca pacchimasseva dammîti dinnam ñatvâ imam vidhim
- 51 Ganhe vissâsagâham vâ 'dhitthe matakacîvaram lohabhande paharanim dârubhande ca dârujam
- 52 Pattam pàdukapallankam âsandim mattikâmaye thapetvà kappati sabbam katakam kumbhakârikan ti

XLII. Desanâ.

- 1 Câgo yo bhikkhubhâvassa sâ pârâjikadesanâ yathâ vuttena vutthânam garukâpattidesanâ
- 2 Ukkuţikam nisîditvâ pagganhitvâna añjalim thullaccayâdim deseyya evam ekassa santike

aham bhante ekam thullaccayâpattim âpajjim tam tumha mûle paţidesemi ti vatvâ tena passasi âvuso tam âpattim ti vutte âma bhante passâmîti vatvâ puna tena âyatim âvuso samvareyyâsîti vutte sâdhu suţthu bhante samvarissâmîti vattabbam. aham bhante dve thullaccayâpattiyo âpajjim. aham bhante sambahulâ thullaccayâpattiyo âpajjim. tâ tumha mûle paţidesemîti vattabbam. nissaggiyesu pana idam me bhante cîvaram dasâhâtikkantam nissaggiyam imâham âyasmato nissajjâmiti. imâni me bhante cîvarâni etam me bhante cîvaram etâni me bhante cîvarâni dasâhatikkantâni nissaggiyani. etânâham âyasmato nissajjâmiti.

3 Nissajjitvâna deseyya âpatti tena bhikkhunâ par ggalletvû âpattian deyr rock rosanskaelwaran

imam inani etam etami elvar ini e sur ito dalli eta e la ethe bhante ofversup ratio with although a Then a chemsammativā nissaggijum, idai mo a eed made ang masktick-niem nieseggijwy. ich man die anderen aren ar Milklya billakhuniya Propinsi palisa 1952 (1952) bhaute olympia ufifiátfirán . Balkez are a maga a hafigarí is tem affleten garivettaki ussacycjeni. 100 il 2006 elverem elillätekam galispitakett villlätyi missaggiyana. Mann mo Bhanko ahrasma 🧦 ke a ga lapolikam tad ustari viščiapitam i brigglije a liki, de lige de อใจสาสตา ทุกเลออาจารทริสาโดยว่า เกิดเกาะเกาะเกาะ เกาะเกาะเกาะ kumitru viku pom liputani, tiles kaj i tile i kaj tiles kaj aiveriam pubbe apparente of laster que en la olvaram adrokatikkhattagi ozollo od lod lod tiebrena abhiri whaditam nassay kosoyyamissakan santhalam ida, taka santhalam ida,

me bhante suddhakâļakânam eļakalomânam santhatam kârâpitam nissaggiyam. idam me bhante santhatam anâdiyitvâ tulam odâtânam tulam gocariyânam kârâpitam nisssaggiyam. idam me bhante santhatam ûnachabbassâni kârâpitam aññatra bhikkhusammutiyâ nissaggiyam. idam me bhante nisîdanasanthatam anâdiyitvâ purâṇasanthataṣsa sâmantâsugatavidatthim kârâpitanissaggiyam. imâni me bhante elakalomâni tiyojanaparamam atikkamitâni nissaggiyâni. imâni me bhante elakalomâni aññâtikâya bhikkhuniyâ dhovâpitâni nissaggiyâni. aham bhante rûpiyam paţiggahesim. idam me bhante nissaggiyam, imâham sanghassa nissajjâmîti. aham bhante nânappakârakam rûpiyasamvohâram samâpajjim. idam me bhante nissaggiyam, imâham sanghassa nissajjâmîti.

- 4 Nissajjitvâna âpattim deseyyâtha gihim vade jânâhîman ti iminâ so vadeyyâharâmi kim
- 5 Avatvâ 'mantitelâdim vade bhikkhûnam kappiyam yam âharati so tena parivattetvâ kappiyam
- 6 Labbham thapetvå dve pete sabbehi paribhuñjitum tato aññena laddho pi bhâgo tesam na kappati
- 7 Rukkhachâyâ pyantamaso tam nibbattâ na kappati nisaṭṭham paṭiladdhampi âdito santatattayam
- 8 No ce labbhetha evam so imam chaddehi samsiyo evam pi bhikkhu chaddeyya no ce labbhetha sammato
- 9 Etâni dutiyam pattam sanghe sesâni labbhare sanghekasmim gane vatthum labbham bhâsantarena pi

aham bhante nânappakârakam kayavikkayam samâpajjim. idam me bhante nissaggiyam, ayam me bhante patto dasâhâtikkanto nissaggiyo, ayam me bhante patto ûnapañca bandhanena pattena cetâpito nissaggiyo. imâham sanghasse nissajjâmi.

10 Nissajjitvâna deseyya âpattim pattaggâhakam sammañitvâna sanghassa pattantam tassa dâpaye

idam me bhante bhesajjam sattâhâtikkantam nissaggiyam idam me bhante vassikasâtikacîvaram atirekamâse sese gimhâne pariyiṭṭham. atirekaḍḍhamâse sese gimhâne katvâ

paridahitam nissaggiyam. idam me bhante cîvaram bhi-kkhussa sâmam datvâ puna acchinnam nissaggiyam. idam me bhante cîvaram sâmam suttam viññâpetvâ tantavâyehi vâyâpitam nissaggiyam. idam me bhante cîvaram pubbe apavâritassa aññâtakassa gahapatikassa tantavâye upasankamitvâ vikappam âpannam nissaggiyam. idam me bhante accekacîvaram samayam atikkâmitam nissaggiyam. idam me bhante cîvaram atirekacharattam vippavuttham aññatra bhikkhusammutiyâ nissaggiyam. idam me bhante jânam sanghikam lâbham attano parinâmitam nissaggiyam, imâham âyasmato nissajjâmîti.

11 Sesam sabbam yathayogam adimhi vippayojaye

aham bhante ekam pâcittiyâpattim âpajjim. dve sambahulâ pâcittiyâpattiyo âpajjim. gârayham me bhante dhammam âpajjim asappâyam paţidesaniyam. tam paţidesemîti. tena passasi avuso tam dhamman ti vattabbam. aham bhante ekam dukkatâpattim âpajjim, dve, sambahulâ dukkatâpattiyo âpajjim. aham bhante ekam dubbhâsitâpattim âpajjim, dve, sambahulâ dubbhâsitâpattiyo âpajjim. tâ tumha mûle patidesemîti. aham bhante dve nanavatthuka thullaccayapattiyo âpajjim, sambahulâ nânâvatthukâ thullaceayâpattiyo âpajjim. tâ tumha mûle patidesemîti vatvâ. tena passasi âvuso tâ âpattiyo ti vutte. âma bhante passâmîti vatvâ. puna tena âyatim âyuso samvareyyâsîti vutte. sâdhu sutthu bhante samvarissâmîti vattabbam.

12 Adesanâgâminiyam anâpatti ca desitam nânâsamvâsâ nissîmathitânam catupañcahi manasâ pakatattânam nânekâ 'ti na desayeti

XLIII. Chandadânâdîti.

- 1 Bherim ghandim patâletvâ kammapatte samâgate sanghe hareyya chandam vâ pârisuddhim pavâranam
- 2 Ekam bhikkhum upâgamma nisîditvâ ukkuţikam añjalim pagganhitvâna dade chandam vicakkhano

chandam dammi. chandam me hara. chandam me ârocehîti vattabbam. pârisuddhim dentena. pârisuddhim dammi. pârisuddhim me hara. pârisuddhim me ârocehîti vattabbam.

- 3 Pârisuddhim padânena sampâdeti uposatham sanghassa attano câpi sesakammam vibâdhati
- 4 Chandadânena sanghassa dvayam sâdheti nattano tasmâ chandam dadantena dâtabbâ pârisuddhipi
- 5 Hareyyeko bahûnam pi paramparâ na hâraye paramparâhaţâ chandapârisuddhi na gacchati sabbûpacâram katvâna evam deyyâ pavâranâ

pavâraṇaṃ dammi. pavâraṇaṃ me hara. pavâraṇaṃ me ârocehi. mamatthâya pavârehîti.

6 Ârocetvâ 'tha so sangham pavâreyyevam âgato

itthamnamo bhante sangham pavareti ditthena va sutena va parisankaya va. vadatu tam sangho anukampam upadaya. passanto patikarissatiti.

- Gahetvâ pârisuddhim vâ chandam vâpi pavâranam hârako sangham appatvâ vibbhameyya mareyya vâ
- 8 Sâmanerâdibhâvam vâ paţijâneyya nâhaţâ patvâ sangham tuthâheyya âhaţâ hoti hârako
- 9 Sanghapatto pamatto vâ sutto nârocayeyya vâ anâpatti va sañcicea nârocentassa dukkaţanti

XLIV. Uposatho ti.

- 1 Duve uposatha câtuddaso pannaraso iti suttuddesamadhiṭṭhanaparisuddhi vasa tayo
- 2 Suttuddeso va sanghassa adhitṭhânauposatho puggalasseva sesânam pârisuddhiuposatho
- 3 Pubbakicce ca karane pattakalle sammânite suttam uddisati sangho pañcadhâ so vibhâvito
- 4 Vinantarâyam sankhepenuddeso vinivârito thero va issaro dvîsu uddese vettha tîsu vâ
- 5 Visadesû ti vuttattâ avattante pi vattati âgaccheyyum yadi samâ uddisanteva thokikâ
- 6 Uddittham yam suudditham sotabbam avasesakam udditthamatte sakalâyekaccâyutthitâya vâ

- 7 Pârisuddhim kareyyesam santike bahukâtha ce katvâ sabbavikappesu pubbakiccam punuddise
- 8 Pannaraso vâsikânam itarânam sacetaro samânetare 'nuvattantu purimânam sace 'dhikâ
- 9 Purimâ anuvattantu tesam sese pyayam nayo pâţipadovâsikânam itarânam uposatho
- 10 Samathokânam sâmaggim mûlatthâ dentu kâmato bahi gantvâna kâtabbo no ce denti uposatho
- 11 Deyyâ nicchâyasâmaggim bahûsu bahi vâ vaje pâṭipado gantukânam evameva ayam nayo
- 12 Såveyya suttam sañcicca asâventassa dukkaṭam sammajjitum padîpetum paññâpetum dakâsanam
- 13 Na kareyya tathâ kallo mahâtherena pesito sammajjitvâ padîpetvâ pathâpetvâ dakâsanam
- 14 Ganañattim thapetvevam kattabbo tihuposatho

suņantu me âyasmanto. ajjuposatho pannaraso. yadâyasmantânam pattakallam mayamaññam pârisuddhiuposatham kareyyâmâti.

ekamsam cîvaram katvâ nisîditvâ ukkuţikam

15 Therena añjalim tvevam paggayha samudîriyâ

parisuddho aham âvuso parisuddho 'ti mam dhârethâti vade yâvatatiyakam.

samattapubbârambhena tena yenevam îriyâ

parisuddho aham âvuso parisuddhoti mam dhârehîti tikkhattum vattabbo.

dvîsu therena kattabbam katvevamîriyo navo

parisuddho aham âvuso parisuddho ti mam dhârehîti tikkhattum vattabbo.

16 Navena thero tikkhattum evam assa udîriyo parisuddho aham bhante parisuddho ti mam dhârehîti pubbakiccam sampâdetvâ adhittheyyevam ekato

ajja me uposatho paṇṇaraso ti vâ câtuddaso ti vâ adhițțhâmîti

ti vattabbam no ce adhittheyya dukkatam

17 Yattha vâ santi cattâro tayo vâ yadi vâ duve pârisuddhim haritvâna ekekassitaritare

- 18 Tam tam uposatham kayirum siyâ âpatti dukkatam vagge samagge vaggo ti saññino vimatissa vâ
- 19 Dukkaṭaṃ karoto bhedâdhippâyena thullaccayaṃ vagge samaggenâpatti samaggo itisaññino
- 20 Ukkhittassa gahatthassa sesânam sahadhamminam pârâjikassa sabbassa sikkhânikkhittakassa ca
- 21 Nisinnaparisâyañ ca sabhâgâpattiko tathâ chandena parivutthena pâtimokkham na uddise
- 22 Adesayitvânâpannam nâvikatvâna vematim 'nuposathe pi vâ kâtum posatho na ca kappati
- 22 Aṭṭhitopasathâvâsâ na vaje tadahû vinâ antarâyam vâ sangham vâ dhiṭṭhâtum sîmamevavâti

XLV. Parâranâ ti.

- 1 Dvinnam tinnañ catunnañ ca aññamaññapavâranâ ekassa ca adhitthânam sesâ sanghapavâranâ
- 2 Pubbakicce ca karane pattakalle samânite thapetvâ ñattim sanghena kattabbevam pavâranâ

Suņātu me bhante sangho. ajja pavāraņā pannarasī. yadi sanghassa pattakallam sangho pavāreyyāti.

3 Ekamsam cîvaram katvâ nisîditvâ ukkuţikam therena añjalim sangho paggayha samudîriya

sangham âvuso pavaremi diṭṭhena vâ sutena vâ parisankâya vâ vadantu mam âyasınanto anukampam upâdâya. passanto paṭikarissâmi. dutiyam pi tatiyam pi âvuso sangham pavaremi diṭṭhena và sutena và parisankâya và vadantu mam âyasmanto anukampam upâdâya passanto paṭikarissâmîti.

- 4 Pavârentesu theresa nisajjukkuţikam navo pavâreti sayam yâva ukkuţiko va aechatu
- 5 Pubbarambham samapetva navo sangham udîriyo

sangham bhante pavâremi diṭṭhena vâ sutena vâ parisankâya vâ vadantu mam âyasmanto anukampam upâdâya. passanto paṭikarissâmi. dutiyam pi tatiyam pi bhante sangham pavâremi d. vâ s. vâ p. vâ . . . paṭikarissâmîti. dânena dhammasâkacchâ kalahehi ca rattiyo 6 Tevâcikâya okâse sati khepitabhâvato antarâye dasavidhe ñattim vatvânurûpato

sunâtu me bhante sangho manussehi dânam dentehi dvîhi bhikkhûhi dhammam sâkacchantehi kalaham karontehi yebhuyyena ratti khepitâ sa ce sangho tevâcikam pavâressati appavârito va sangho bhavissati athâyam ratti vibhâyissati ayam râjantarâyo pe . . . ayam brahmacariyantarâyo sace sangho tevâcikam pavâressati appavârito va sangho bhavissati. athâyam brahmacariyantarâyo bhavissati. yadi sanghassa pattakallam sangho dvevâcikam ekavâcikam samânavassikam pavareyyâti.

- 7 Pavâreyyânurûpena yathâ thapitañattiyâ âgaccheyyum yadi samâ âdikâ cettha âhare
- 8 Evam ti catuvaggo ca ñattim vatvâ pavâraye

suņantu me âyasmanto ajja pavāraņā paņņārasī. yadāyasmantānam pattakallam mayam aññamaññam pavāreyyāmāti.

ekamsam cîvaram katvâ nisîditvâ ukkuțikam

9 Therena añjalim tvevam paggayha samudîriya

aham âvuso âyasmante pavâremi ditthena vâ sutena vâ parisankâya vâ vadantu . . . patikarissâmi. dutiyampi tatiyampi . . . patikarissâmi.

navenâpi aham bhante âyasmante pavâremi . . . paţikarissâmîti.

dvîsu therena kattabbam navo katvevam îriyo

aham âvuso âyasmantam pavâremi . . . dutiyampi tatiyampi . . . navenâpi . . . paţikarissâmîti.

10 Pubbakiccam samâpetvâ adhittheyyevam ekako

ajja me pavåraņā câtuddasî ti vâ pannarasî ti vâ adhiṭṭhâmî ti vattabbam.

yasmim vasanti vâ pañca cattâro vâ tayo duve

- 11 Pavâranam haritvâna ekekassitaritare tam tam pavâranam kayirum siyâ âpatti dukkaţam
- 12 Sesâ uposathe vuttâ gâthâyo cettha âhare

- 13 Pavârite ca sanghamhi pârisuddhi uposatham kareyya chinnavasso vâ avuttho vânupâgato
- 14 Catumâsiniyâ câpi kate sanghenuposathe vuṭṭhavassâ pavâreyyum sace appatarâ siyumti

XLVI. Samvaro ti.

- Cakkhussotâdibhedehi rûpasaddâdi gocare abhijjhâdomanassâdi ppavattim vinivâraye
- 2 Nigganheyya sakam cittam kitthâdim viya duppasum satimâ sampajâno ca care sabbiriyâpathe ti

XLVII. Suddhiti.

- 1 Desanâ samvaro etthi paccavekkhanabhedato suddhi catubbidhâ pâtimokkhasamvarasammatam
- 2 Desanâya visuddhattâ desanâsuddhi vuccati na punevam karissanti cittâdhitthânasamvaro
- 3 Vutto samvarasuddhîti sujjhatindriyasamvaro pahâyânesanam dhammenuppâdentassa etthiyâ
- 4 Suddhattâ etthisuddhîti vuttam âjîvanissitam yoniso paţisankhâya cîvaram paţisevati
- 5 Evamâdi yathâvuttapaccavekkhanasujjhanâ paccavekkhanasuddhîti vuttam paccayanissitanti

XLVIII. Santoso ti.

- 1 Appena anavajjena santuttho sulabhena ca mattaññu subharo hutvâ care sadhammagâravo
- 2 Atîtam nânusocanto nappajappamanâgatam paccuppanno nayâpento santuttho ti pavuccati

XLIX. Caturakkhû ti.

- 1 Buddhânussatimettâ ca asubham maranassa ti ârakattâdinâraham sammâsâmañca buddhato
- 2 Sammâsambuddham iti vânussatiyâ punappunam navabhede bhagavato buddhânussatiyâ gune

- 3 Sîmatthasanghasîmatthadevatâsu ca issare jane gocaragâmamhi tatthuppâdâya mânuso
- 4 Sabbasattesu sukhitâ hontâ verâdiàdinâ parichijja parichijja bhâvanâ mettabhâvanâ
- 5 Vannasanthânaokâsadisato paricchedato vavatthapetvâ kesâdikotthâse anupubbato
- 6 Nâtisîghañ ca sanikam vikkhepam patibâhayam pannattim samatikkamma muñcantassânupubbato
- 7 Vannaâsayasanthânam gandhokâsehi bhâvanâ patikkulâsikotthâse uddhumâtâdivatthusu
- 8 Gahetvâ asubhâkâram pavattâ bhâvanâ subham maranam me bhavissati jîvitam uparujjhati
- 9 Maranam maranam vâti bhâvayitvâna yoniso vadhakassevupaṭṭhânâ sampattînam vipattito
- 10 Upasamharato kâyabahusâdhâranâ tathâ âyudubbalato kâlavavatthânassa bhâvato
- 11 Addhânassa paricchedâ bhâvanâ maraṇassatîti

L. Vipassanâ ti.

- 1 Nâmarûpam pariggayha tato tassa ca paccayam hutvâ abhâvato niccâ udayabbayapîlanâ
- 2 Dukkhâ avasavattittâ anattâ ti tilakkhanam âropetvâna sankhâre sammasanto punappunam
- 3 Pâpuneyyânupubbena sabbasamyojanakkhayanti adhisîlâdhicittânam adhippaññâyasikkhanâ
- 4 Bhikkhukiceam ato khuddasikkhâyasamudâhaţo mahate kittisaddassayassa lokavicârino
- 5 Pariss. 10 na sambhoti mâlutasseva niccayo tena Dhammasirikena Tambapanniyaketunâ
- 6 Therena racitâ dhammavinayaññupasamsitâ ettâvatâyam nitthânam khuddasikkhâ upâgatâ pañcamattehi gâthânam satehi parimânato ti.

NIBBÂNAPACCAYO HOTU.

KHUDDASIKKHÂ NIŢŢHITÂ.

MÛLASIKKHÂ.

Namo tassa Bhagavato arahato sammâsambuddhasa.

Natvâna tam pavakkhâmi mûlasikkham samâsato.

PÂRÂJIKÂ.

- I. 1 Bhikkhunâ navakenâdo mûlabhâsâya sikkhitum yannimittam pavesanto bhikkhu maggattaye cuto
 - 2 Pavesanatthituddhârapavitthe cepi sâdiyam adinnam mânusam bhandam theyyâyekena âdiyam
 - 3 Pañcavisâvahâresu garukañ ce cuto bhave âdiyanto haranto vâ haranto iriyâpatham
 - 4 Vikopento tathâ thânâ câvento pi pârâjiko tattha nânekabhaṇḍânaṃ pañcakânaṃ vasâ pana
 - 5 Avahârâ dasañ ceti viññâtabbâ vibhâvinâ sahatthânattiko ceva nissaggo atthasâdhako
 - 6 Dhuranikkhepanañ ceva idam sâhatthapañcakam pubbasahapayogo ca samvidhàharanam pi ca
 - 7 Saketakammam nimittam pubbayogâdipañcakam theyyâpasayhâ parikappâ paţicchinnâ kusâtikâ
 - 8 Avahârâ ime pañca viñnâtabbâ vibhâvinâ manussapânam pânoti jânam vadhakacetasâ jîvitâ yo viyojeti sâsanâ so pârâjiko
 - 9 Jhânâdibhedam hadaye asantam aññâpadesañ ca vinâdhimânam manussajâtissa vadeyya bhikkhu ñâtakkhane tena pârâjiko vaso. [parâjayam âpanno pârâjiko.]

CATTÂRO PÂBÂJIKÂ NITTHITÂ.

II. Sattagarukâpatti.

- 1 Mocetukâmacittena upakkamma vimocayam sukkam aññatra supinâ samano garukam phuse
- 2 Kâyasamsaggarâgena manussitthim parâmasam itthisaññi upakkamma samano garukam phuse
- 3 Dutthullavâcassâdena maggam vârabbha methunam obhâsento manussitthim sunamânam garum phuse
- 4 Vannam vatvattano kâmapâricariyâya methunam itthimethunarâgena yâcamâno garum phuse
- 5 Sandesam paţiganhitvâ purisassitthiyâ pi vâ vîmamsitvâ haram pacchâ samano garukam phuse
- 6 Câvetukâmo codento amûlantimavatthunâ codâpayam vâ samano sunamânam garum phuse
- 7 Lesamattamupâdâya amûlantimavatthunâ câvetukâmo codento suṇamânam garum phuse

SATTAGARUKÂPATTI NIŢŢĦITÂ.

III. Nissaggiyâ.

- 1 Vikappanam adhitthânam akatvâ kâlacîvaram dasâham atimâpeti tassa nissaggiyam siyâ
- 2 Bhikkhusammutiyaññatra ticîvaram adhitthitam ekâham atimâpeti tassa nissaggiyam siyâ
- 3 Aññâtikâya bhikkhuniyâ purânacîvaram pana dhovâpeti rajâpeti âkoţâpeti tam siyâ
- 4 Aññâtikâya bhikkhuniyâ hatthato kiñci mûlakam adatvâ cîvarâdâne nissaggiyam udîritam
- 5 Appavâritam aññâtim viññâpentassa cîvaranı aññatra samayâtassa nissaggiyam udîritam
- 6 Rajatam jâtarûpam vâ mâsakam vâ kahâpanam ganheyya vâ ganhâpeyya nissaggi sâdiyeyya vâ
- 7 Parivaţţeyya nissaggi rajatâdi catubbidham kappiyam kappiyenâpi ţhapetvâ sahadhammike
- 8 Vikappanam adhitthânam akatvâna pamânikam dasâham atimâpeti pattam nissaggiyam siyâ

- 9 Pañcabandhanato ûnapatte sati param pana viññâpeti navam pattam tassa nissaggiyam siyâ
- 10 Paţiggahetvâ bhuñjanto sappi telâdikam pana sattâham atimâpeti tassa nissaggiyam siyâ
- 11 Bhikkhussa cîvaram datvâ acchindantassa tam puna sakasaññaya nissaggi acchindâpayato pi vâ
- 12 Appavâritam aññâtim suttam yâciya cîvaram vâyâpentassa nissaggi vinaññâtipavârite
- 13 Jânanto bhikkhusanghassa lâbham parinatam pana attano parinâmeti tassa nissaggiyam siya. [nissajjitabbo nissaggiyo.]

TERASA NISSAGGIYÂ NIȚȚHITÂ.

IV. Pâcittiyâ.

- 1 Sampajânamusâvâde pâcittiyam udîritam bhikkhuñ ca omasantassa pesuññaharane pi ca
- 2 Thapetvâ bhikkhunim bhikkhum aññena piṭakattayam padaso dhammam bhaṇantassa pâcittiyam udîritam
- 3 Anupasampanneneva sayitvâna tirattiyam pâcitti sahaseyyâya catutthatthangate puna
- 4 Itthiyâ ekarattampi seyyam kappayato pi vâ desentassa vinâ viññum dhammam ca chapaduttari
- 5 Dutthullam bhikkhuno vajjam bhikkhusammutiyâ vinâ abhikkhuno vadantassa pâcittiyam udîritam
- 6 Khaneyya vâ khanâpeyya pathaviñ ca akappiyam bhûtagâmam vikopeyya tassa pâcittiyam siyâ
- 7 Ajjhokåse tu mañcâdim katnâ santharanâdikam sanghikam yâti pâcitti akatvâ pucchanâdikam
- 8 Sanghikâvasathe seyyam katvâ santharanâdikam akatvâ pucchanâdim yo yâti pâcitti tassa pi
- 9 Jânam sappânakam toyam pâcitti paribhuñjaye aññâtikâ bhikkhuniyâ thapetvâ parivattakam
- 10 Cîvaram deti pâcitti cîvaram sibbato pi ca atirittam akâretvâ pavâretvâna bhuñjato
- 11 Bhikkhum âsâdanâpekkho pavâreti pavâritam natirittena bhutte tu pâcittiyam udîritam

- 12 Sannidhim bhojanam bhuñje vikâle yâvakâlikam bhuñjato vâpi pâcitti agîlânopanîtakam
- 13 Viññâpetvâna bhuñjeyya sappi bhattâdikam pi ca appatiggahitam bhuñje dantakatthodakam vinâ
- 14 Titthiyassa dade kiñci bhuñjitabbam sahatthato nisajjam vâ raho kappe mâtugâmena ekato
- 15 Surâmerayapâne pi pâcittiyam udîritam angulipatodake câpi hasadhamme pi codake
- 16 Anâdare pi pâcitti bhikkhum bhimsayato pi vâ bhayânakam katham katvâ dassetvâ vâ bhayânakam
- 17 Thapetvâ paccayam kiñci agilâno jaleyya vâ joti jalâpayeyya vâ tassa pâcittiyam siyâ
- 18 Kappabindum anâdâya navacîvarabhogino hasâpekkhassa pâcitti bhikkhuno cîvarâdikam
- 19 Apanetvâ nidhentassa nidhâpentassa vâ pana jâṇaṃ pâṇaṃ mârentassa tiracchânagataṃ pi vâ
- 20 Châdetukâmo châdeti duṭṭhullam bhikkhuno pi ca gâmantaragatassâpi saṃvidhâyitthiyâ saha
- 21 Bhikkhum paharato vâpi talasat@kam ugg.ro codeti vâ codâpeti garukâ mûlekena pi
- 22 Kukkuccuppådane cåpi bhandanatthávupassut que sotum bhandanajátánam yáti pleittiyam siyá
- 23 sanghassa l\(\hat{a}\)bham parin\(\hat{a}\)mitar tu n\(\hat{a}\)meti yo tam parapuggalassa.
- 24 Puccham akatvâ pi ca santablikkhum pâcitti gâmassa gate pi kâle

EKACATTĀLISA PĀCIDENĀ NIPPTUM.

V. Dubbhasipak inyaka-niddesa.

- 1 Sanghikam garukam bhandan sulay yafidasa walat thullaccayam yathayata'nan thayyay u ajirdil di
- 2 Kusâdimayacîrâni kambalan keser alija r samayam vinâ dhârayatolûkapak khûrinek khipaya
- 3 Satthakamme vatthikamme sar imitarica oli volio thullaccayam mariusanim mariisleibni jine prose
- 4 Kadalerakkadussâni potthakanı sabbantadıkanı câpi dhârayantassa dakka jaş

- 5 Hatthissuragasonânam sîhabyagghaccha dîpinam taracchassa ca mamsâdi uddissakatakam pi ca
- 6 Anâpucchitamamsañ ca bhuñjato dukkatam siyâ yâthânupubbam hitvâna dakatitthâdikam vaje
- 7 Sahasâ vubbhajitvâna pavise nikhameyya vâ vaccapassâvakuţikam vinâ ukkâsikam vise
- 8 Nitthunanto kare vaccam dantakatthañ ca khâdayam vaccapassâva doninam bahi vaccâdikam kare
- 9 Kharena câvalekheyya kattham pâteyya kûpake ûhatañ ca na dhoveyya uklâpañ ca na sodhaye
- 10 Dakakiccam karontassa katvâ capu capu ti ca anajjhittho va therena pâtimokkham pi uddise
- 11 Anâpucchâya pañhassa kathane visajjane pi ca sajjhâyakarane dîpam jâlane vijjhâpane pi ca
- 12 Vâtapânakavâţâdi vivareyya thakeyya vâ vandanâdim kare naggo gamanam bhojanam pi ca
- 13 Parikammam kare kâre 'ti paţichannakam vinâ nahâya kâyam ghamseyya kudde thambhe tarum pi vâ
- 14 Kuruvindakasuttena aŭñamaññassa kâyato agilâno pahârâme careyya saupâhano
- 15 Upâhanam yo dhâreti sabbanîlâdikam pi ca nimittam itthiyâratto mukham vâ bhikkhadâyiyâ
- 16 Ujjhânasaññî aññassa pattam vâ attano mukham âdâsâdimhi passeyya uccâsanamahâsane
- 17 Nisajjâdim karontassa dukkatam vandane pi và ukkitthânupasampannanânâsamvâsakâdinam
- 18 Ekato pandakitthîhi ubhatobyañjanena vâ dîghâsane nisîdeyya adîghe âsane pi ca
- 19 Asamânâsanikena mañcapîthe sayeyya vâ kulasangahattham dadato phalapupphâdikam pi ca
- 20 Ganthim âdim kare kâre jinavâritapaccaye paribhuñjeyya abyatto anissâya vaseyya vâ
- 21 Anuññâtehi aññassa bhesajjam vâ kare vade kare sâpattiko bhikkhu uposathapavâranam
- 22 Dvârabandhâdike thâne parivattakavâṭakam apidhâya vinâ bhogam niyogam vâsaye divâ
- 23 Dhaññitthirûparatanam âvudhitthipasâdanam tûribhandam phalam rukkhe pupphannâdiñ ca âmase

- 24 Sasittodakatelehi phanahatthaphanehi vâ kesam osanhanekasmim bhâjane bhojane pi ca
- 25 Ekattharaṇapâvuraṇe sayeyyum dvekamañcake dantakaṭṭhañ ca khâdeyya adhikûnam pamânato
- 26 Yojeti vâ yojâpeti naccam gîtam ca vâditam dassanam savanam tesam karontassa ca dukkatam
- 27 Pihâdiropime câpi bahi pâkârakuddake vaccâdichaddanâdimhi dîghakesâdi dhârane
- 28 Nakhamatthakarâdimhi sambâdhe lomahârane parikammakatam bhûmim akkame saüpâhano
- 29 Adhotaallopâdehi sanghikam mañcapîthakam parikammakatam bhittim âmasantassa dukkatam
- 30 Sanghaţiyâ pi pallatthe dupparibhuñjeyya cîvaram akâyabandhano gâmam vaje katvâna vaccakam
- 31 Nâcameyya dake sante samâdeyya akappiye desanârocanâdimhi sabhâgâpattiyâ pi ca
- 32 Na vase vassam visamvâde suddhacitto patissavam vassam vasitvâ gamane ananuññâtakiccato
- 33 Vinâ padam tarusuddham porisamhâbhirûhane aparissâvano 'ddhânam vaje tam yâcito na de
- 34 Attano ghâtane itthirûpâdim kârayeyya vâ hitvâ mâlâdikam cittam jâtakâdim sayam kare
- 35 Bhuñjantamuṭṭhapentassa sâlâdîsu nisîdato vuddhânam pana okâsam adatvâ vâpi dukkaṭam
- 36 Yânâdim abhirûheyya kallako ratanattayam ârabbha vade davaññaparisâyopalâlane
- 37 Kâyâdim vivaritvâna bhikkhunînam-na dassaye vâce lokâyatam phalitam ganheyya ganhapeyya vâ
- 38 Yatthakatthacipelâya bhuñjato patta hatthako vâtapâṇakavâṭaṃ vâ paṇâme sodakam pi ca
- 39 Unheyya patisâmeyya atiunheyya nodakam thapeyya bhûmiyam pattam ange và mañcapitthe vâ
- 40 Midhante paribhandante påde chatte thapeti vå calakådim thape pattam patte vå hattha dhovane
- 41 Pattena niharantassa ucchittham udakam pi ca. akappiyam pi pattam vâ paribhuñjeyya dukkaṭam
- 42 Vade jîvâ 'ti khipite na bhikkhati anâdaro parimandalakâdimhi sekhiye dukkatam siyâ

- 43 Yo bhandagare pasutto va bhandakam matuna pacittiyam assa gopayo
- 44 Davâya hînena pi jâtiâdinâ vadeyya dubbhâsitam uttamam pi so

dubbhāsipakiņņakaniddesā niţţhitā.

VI. Suddhi.

- 1 Upajjhâceravattañ ca gamikâgantukam pi ca senâsanâdivattañ ca kâtabbam piyasîlinâ
- 2 Hatthapâse thito kiñci gahitabbam dade tidhâ gahetukâmo ganheyya dvidhâyam sampatiggaho
- 3 Sanghâţim uttarâsangam tathâ antaravâsakam etam imam adhiţţhâmi tathâ paccuddharâmîti
- 4 Imam imâni etâni etam pi cîvaran ti vâ parikkhâracoļânîti tathâ paccuddharâmîti
- 5 Ekam imam adhitthâmi pattam paccuddharâmîti evam paccuddhare 'dhitthe cîvarâdi yathâvidhi
- 6 Sañcarittam vinâ sesâ sacittagarukantimâ acchinnam parinatam hitvâ nissaggiyam acittakam
- 7 Padaso dhammam duve seyyam itthiyâ dhammadesanâ duve senâsanâni pi sibbanam cîvarassa pi
- 8 Pavâritam surâpânam pañcasannidhiâdikam joti ujjâlanañ ceva kappabindum anâdikam
- 9 Gâmappavesanan 'tete pâcittîsu acittakâ pakinnakesu uddissa katham hitvaññamamsakam
- 10 Ekattharanapâvuranam ekamañce tuvatṭanam ekato bhunjanañ câpi naccagîtâdi sattapi
- 11 Akâyabandhanañ câpi pattahatthakavâṭakam acittakam idam sabbam sesamettasacittakam
- 12 Vitakkamanacittena sacittakam acittakam paññattijânane câpi vadantâcariyâ tathâ
- 13 Pubbakaranâdikam katvâ uposathapavâranam navamâ dîpitam sabbam kâtabbam piyasîlinâ sammujjanî padîpo ca udakam âsanena ca uposathassa etâni pubbakaranan ti vuccati. chandapârisuddhi utukkhânam bhikkhugananâ ca ovâdo. uposathassa etâni pubbakaranan ti vuccati

uposatho yâvatikâ ca bhikkhû kammapattâ sabhâgâpattiyo ca na vijjanti vajjaniyâ ca puggalâ tasmim na honti pattakallan ti vuccati.

pubbakaraṇapubbakiccâni samâdapetvâ desitâpattikassa samaggassa bhikkhusanghassa anumatiyâ pâṭimokkham uddisitum ârâdhanam karoma.

pårisuddhi adhitthånam suttuddesavaså tidhå ganapuggalasanghå ca tam kareyyum yathåkamam cåtuddaso pañcadaso samaggi dinato tidhå dinapuggalakåtabbå kårato tena veritå tayo tayo' ti katvåna dinapuggalabhedato tevåcidvekavåcîti nava vuttå pavåranå kattikantimapakkhamhå hemam phaggunapunnamå tassa antimapakkhamhå gimham åsålipunnamå vassakålam tato seyyam catuvîsatuposathå cåtuddasa cha etesu pakkhå tatiyasattamå ñeyyå pannarasa seså atthårasa uposathå

chandam dammi. chandam me hara. chandam me ârocehîti chandam dâtabbam. pârisuddhim dammi. p° me hara. p° me ârocehîti pârisuddhi dâtabbâ. pavâranam dammi. p° p° me ârccehi mamatthâya pavârehîti pavâranâ me hara. âpatti desakena. aham bhante sambahulâ nânâdâtabbâ. vatthukâ âpattiyo âpajjim. tâ tumhe mûle patidesemi. vutte passasi âvuso tâ âpattiyo ti. patiganhantena vutte. âma bhante passâmi vatvâ puna patiganhantena âyatim âvuso samvareyyâsîti vutte sâdhu sutthum bhante samvarissâmiti tikkhattum vatvå desetabbam. vematim årocentena. aham bhante sambahulâsu nânâvatthukâsu âpattîsu vematiko. yadâ nibbematiko bhavissâmi tadâ tâ âpattiyo patikarissâmîti tikkhattum vatvå årocetabbam ajja me uposatho pannaraso catuddaso ti vâ adhitthâmîti. tikkhattum vatvà puggalena adhitthânauposatho kâtabbo. dvîsu pana therena parisuddho aham âvuso parisuddho ti mam dhârehîti tikkhattum vattabbam.

navakenâpi tatheva vattabbam. aham bhante mam dhârethâti vacanam viseso. tîsu pana sunantu me âyasmanto ajjuposatho pannaraso yadâyasmantânam pattakallam mayam aññamaññam pârisuddhi uposatham kareyyàmâti ñattim tha-

petvå patipåtiyå vattanayena pårisuddhiuposatho kåtabbo. ajja me pavâranâ câtuddasîti vâ pannarasîti vâ adhitthâmîti tikkhattum vatvå ekena pavåretabbo. dvisu pana therena aham âvuso âyasmantam pavâremi ditthena vâ sutena vâ parisankâya vâ. vadatu mam âyasmâ anukampam upâdâya. passanto patikarissâmîti. tikkhattum vatvâ pavâretabbam. navakenâpi tattheva vattabbam sante tivacanam viseso. tîsu vâ catûsu vâ pana sunantu me âyasmantâ ajja pavâranâ pannarasî yadâyasmantânam pattakallam mayam aññam aññam pavâreyvâmâti. nattim thapetvâ therena aham âvuso âvasmante pavâremi ditthena vâ sutena vâ parisankâya vâ vadantu mam âyasmantâ anukampam upâdâya. patikarissâmîti. tikkhattum vatvâ pavâretabbam navakehi pi tatheva patipâtivâ pavâretabbam bhante tivacanam viseso. catûhi adhikesu pana sunâtu me âvuso sangho. ajja pavâranâ pannarasî yadi sanghassa pattakallam sangho pavârevyâti ñattim thapetvâ vuddhatarena samgham âvuso pavâremi ditthena vâ sutena vâ parisankâya vâ. mam sangho ano upo passo pato tiko vo po atthatam bhante sanghassa kathinam dhammiko. kathinatthâro. mîti tiko vatvâ kathinam anumoditabbam evam pi nissâya ekamsam uttarâsangam karitvâ añjalîkatvâ gahetabbo. ukkutikam nisîditvâ yâvatatiyakam âcariyo me bhante hoti. âyasmatâ nissâya vacchâmîti gahetabbo. nissayam dentena pi lajjino yeva dâtabbam na bhikkhavehi alajjinam nissayo dâtabbo. yo dadeyya âpatti dukkatassâti vuttam. desanâ suddhi nâma pâtimokkhasamvarasîlam tamhi desanâya sujjhanato desanâsuddhîti vuccati. samvarasuddhi nâma indriyasamvarasîlam tamhi na punevam karissâmîti manasi 'dhitthâvasujihanato samvarasuddhîti vuccati. parisetthisuddhi nâma âjîvaparisuddhisîlam tamhi pariyesanâya suddhatâ parisetthisuddhîti vuccati. paccavekkhanâsuddhi nâma paccayaparibhogasannissitasîlam tamhi paţisankhâ yoniso cîvaram paţisevâmi âdinâ nayena vuttapaccavekkhanena sujjhanato paccavekkhanâsuddhîti vuccati.

> NIBBÂNAPACCAYO HOTU. MÛLASIKKHÂ NIȚȚHITÂ.

COMPARATIVE TABLE.

KHUDDASIKKHÂ.

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I = Pâr. 1-4, comp. Kankhâ Vitaranî ap. Minayeff Pâtimokkha, p. 67.
     II = Sangh. 1-9. C. II, 1, 4. M. IX, 4, 6.
     III = M. I, 30, 4. Pâc. 90. 91. 92. M. VIII, 13. 14. 16-18. 20. 21.
               28. 29. M. III, 5, 9.
     IV = M. VIII, 10, 1.
     V = Niss. 21. C. V, 9. 10.
     VI = ?
    VII = Pâc. 35-39.
   VIII = M. VI, 40, 2. 35, 6. Niss. 23. M. VI, 3-6.
     IX = ?
      X = M. VI, 23, 9-15.31, 13.14.
    XI = Niss. 19. 20. 30.
   XII = Pâc. 1-4. 75. 54. 77. 85. 67. 55. 63. 12. 1. 2. 64. 53.
   XIII = Pâc. 11. M. VI, 21. C. V, 5, 2.
   XIV = M. VI, 33, 4. III, 5, 6. VI, 40, 2.
    XV = M. I, 32. 25. 26. C. VIII, 7, 1. M. I, 25, 23. 24. 20.
   XVI = C. VIII, 10, 1-3.
  XVII = M. II, 15, 5-11. 16, 9. M. I, 25, 18.
 XVIII = C. V, 15.
   XIX = C. V, 1.
   XX = C. VI, 6, 5.
   XXI = ?
  XXII = M. V, 2.
 XXIII = Sekh. 38. C. V, 2, 4.
 XXIV = M. VI, 12. 13.
  XXV = M. V, 10, 4 = Brahmajâlasutta Grimblot Sept Suttas Pali, p. 9.
               C. VI, 8. 14.
  XXVI = C. VI, 13, 2.
XXVII = M. III, 6, 6 (?). IX, 3, 4.
XXVIII = C. I, 13.
 XXIX = Sangh. 13.
```

XXX = M. I, 25 ff. C. VIII, 1 ff.

XXXI = Pâc. 59 comp. Kankhâ Vit. ap. Min. 48.

XXXII = M. I, 35 ff.

XXXIII = C. V, 29.

XXXIV = Pâc. 10. 74. C. VI, 3.

XXXV = ?

XXXVI = ?

XXXVII = Pâc. 84. C. VI, 17.

XXXVIII = Sangh. 13.

XXXIX = M. III, 2. 3. 6-12.

XL = M. VIII, 27, 5. C. VI, 16, 2. Pâr. IV, 1, 3. C. VI, 15, 2.

XLI = C. V, 14, 3. VI, 2, 1. V, 2, 3. 19, 2, 31, 2. 34. 27, 1. 3. 4. 2.

Pâc. 2 (comp. Samanta Pâsâdikâ ap. Minayeff Pât. 83).

C. VI, 20. VIII, 9. V, 32, 2. 13, 2. V, 7. M. V, 10, 3.

I, 59, 1. C. X, 9. V, 33, 2. 27, 5. 29, 4. 32, 1. Sehh

74. Bhikkhunîpâc. 8. 9. M. I, 56. Pâc. 54. M. I, 25.

13. 26, 3. 27, 3. V, 12. VIII, 23, 1. C. V, 23, 1. 2. 27,

5. 30. VI, 2, 5. M. IV, 1, 12. VI, 27, 5. C. V, 23, 5. M. VIII, 27. 31. C. V, 28, 1. 37. M. V, 10, 4.

XLII = Niss. 1-5. 11-19. 20-22. 23-30.

XLIII = M. II, 23. 22.

XLIV = M. II, 28, 3. 4. 34, 1-3. II, 16, 6. 26, 2. 22, 1. 26, 5. 9. 10. II, 14. 27, 2.

XLV = M. IV, 16, 2. 5, 3. 1, 13. 14. 15, 2. 4. 7. 16, 2. 17, 6. 18. XLVI = ?

MÛLASIKKHÂ.

I { = Pârivâra VI, 5. = Pârâjikâ 1-4.

II = Sangh. 1-4. 8. 9.

III = Niss. 1. 2. 4. 1. 18. 21-23. 25. 26. 30.

= Pâc. 1-7. 2-11. 14. 15. 20. 25. 26. 35-41. 44. 51-56. 60. 61. 64. IV (67. 75-78.

(= M. VIII, 27. VI, 14, 4. 22, 4. C. V, 7. M. VI, 23, 9.

V = M. VIII, 28. VI, 23. 31, 13. C. VIII, 10. M. II, 15, 5. I, 25, 18. C. V, 15. V, 1, 3. VI, 20, 1. M. V, 2. C. V, 2, 4. M. V, 10, 4. C. VI, 8, 14. 13, 2. II, 1, 4. VI, 6, 5. V. 19, 2. 31, 2. 2, 6. 27, 1-4. Sekh. 74. Bhikkhunîpâc. 8. 9. C. VI, 20, 2. `V, 29, 1. VIII, 9. V, 32, 2. 13, 2. M. V, 10, 3. I, 59, 1. C. X, 9. 1. 2. Pâc. 21. C. V, 33, 2. 9, 3. 4. V, 10, 3. 33, 3. VIII, 5, 2. Sekh. 1.

VI = M. I, 32. = Sangh. 4. Niss. 30. Pâc. 4. 7. Niss. 23. Pâc. 38 comp. Kankhâ Vit. ap. Min. Pât. 91. C. V, 19, 2. V, 2, 6. 29, 1.

LIST OF MANUSCRIPTS

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вч

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DEPARTMENT OF ORIENTAL MSS. BRITISH MUSEUM.

LIST OF MANUSCRIPTS IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

BY

DR. HOERNING.

I. VINAYA PIȚAKAM.

Number of MS.	Oriental 444. Egerton 736.	", 1115. Additional 12,090.	Orient. 2446.	", 1027. Eg. 1115.	Orient, 1261.	Add. 9068.
Material.	Palmleaves do.	do.	do.	do. do.	do.	do.
	Sinhalese Burmese			Burmese do.	Kambojian	Burmese
Number. of leaves.	112 146	147 39	erpre- 313	ive 294 91	551	8e in-
Title.	Раналикам do defective	do., defective	Parajikam, with Burmese interpretation. Defective 3	Pârâjika Aţţhakathâ. Defect Pâgretrak. def.	Манауавво	do., iragment, with burmese in- terpretation

Number of MS. Add. 8903. Eg. 1114. Add. 10,550. "10,554. Orient. 2664. Eg. 735. Add. 4849 A. "11,640. "15,240. "15,240. "15,249.	1 In the division of this Buddhist ritual I have followed the authority of a MS. in the possession of Dr. Rost, who kindly lent it to me for examination. This MS. is the only complete copy of the Kannarideam, which has come under my notice. It is written on twenty gilt palmleaves, numbered kha-gai, in the square char. The nine chapters into which it is divided begin as follows:— 1. Puthaman upajiham glabapetabbo fol. khab, l. 2. 2. Thirders chip's metabbà utupmanan adikkhitabbam fol. khab, l. 4. 3. Sunātu me bhante sangho joa sanghena nichrana avipparasam upannam fol. khaue, l. 3. 4. Sunātu me bhante sangho yoa sanghena nichrana avipparasam upa sanmato fol. khâp, l. 4. 5. Ahan bhante itthannāmam nāmasammutim icehāmi fol. gia, l. 5. 6. Aham bhante itthannāmam nāmasammutim icehāmi fol. gia, l. 5. 7. Sunātu me bhante sangho yadi sanghassa patrakallam sangho asāmikam attudesam so sangham kuṭivathum sanmanneyya fol. gub, l. 3. 8. Sunātu me bhante sangho yadi sanghassa patrakallam sangha kuṭikattukāmo asāmikam attudesam so sangham kuṭivathum yangan yadi fol. gub, l. 3.
Square char. Gilt palmleaves Burmese Silvered palmleaves do. Bo. do. Gilt palmleaves do. do. Trory do. Ivory do. Gilt palmleaves do. Gilt palmleaves do. Gilt palmleaves do. Gilt palmleaves	thority of a MS. in the poss actoam, which has come under sinto which its divided beging thus, l. 4. pannam fol. khaua, l. 3. pannam fol. khaua, l. 3. p. 2. l. 5. tho itthannamam vihâram kap acikâyakuţikattukâmo asâmi
Number of leaves. Character. 14 Square char. 7 Burmese 6 do. 6 do. 177 do. 15 do. 2 do. 12 do. 12 do. 1 do. 1 do. 1 do. 1 do.	e followed the auppy of the Kannu The nine chapters h. 1. 2. kkhitabbam fol. kahitabbam up tiefvarena avippa vicechami fol. gia, icchami fol. gia, icchami fol. gia, icchami sangmu o bhikkhu sannimu o bhikkhu sannimu o bhikkhu sannimu o
Number of leaves. 14 7 6 6 177 9 15 15 12 11	tual I hav omplete oc ure char. of fol. kha nana aci sanghasa sanghana samutim amutim aighasa i
Title. CULAVAGGO: Sanghâdisesa ritual do. do. do. PARIVÀRO Kammavâcam, chl. 2-4. Defective do., chl. 1-3, 5. Defective do., chl. 1-3, 4. Fragment do., chl. 1-8	1 In the division of this Buddhist rif for examination. This MS. is the only of palmleaves, numbered kha-gai, in the squares, Turadeve châyâ metabbâ utupan 3. Sunâtu me bhante sangho idam 4. Sunâtu me bhante sangho idam 5. Ahan bhante itthannâman theras 6. Ahan bhante itthannâman nâmas 7. Sunâtu me bhante sangho yadi sa B. Sunâtu me bhante sangho yadi sa Sunâtu me bhante sangho yadi sa Sunâtu me bhante sangho yadi sa sunâtu me phante sangho yadi sa sunâtu me bhante sangho yadi sa sunâtu me sunâtu me sunâtu sun sun sun sun sun sun sun sun sun su

olokanan yâcuti | fol. gûa, l. 8. 3. Aham bhaute vissayamuttasammutim iochâmi | soham bhante sangham nissayamuttasammutim yâcûmîti || fol. gea, l. 4.

Subscription; Navakhandam.

Title.	Number of leaves.	Character.	Material.	Number of MS.
Kammavâcam, ch. 1.	\$	Burmese	Gilt palmleaves	Add. 15,290.
do ohh 1-2	14	Square char.	Ivory	,, 15,291.
do. chh. 1–3.	12	do.	Gilt palmleaves	,, 17,490.
do ch 3. Fraement	-	do.	Gilt copperplate	" 18,756 А.
do ch. 2. Fragment	, , 1	do,	Copperplate painted red	,, 18,756 B.
do chh. 1-3.	12	do.	Gift copperplates	,, 22,841.
do., ch. 1. Fragment	က	do.	Cloth thickly coated with	
			mother-of-pearl letters	23.939.
do oh 9 with Burmese internre-				
tation. Defective	13	Burmese	Silvered palmleaves	,, 24,128.
do. chh. 1-3. Defective	10	Square char.	Gilt palmleaves	,, 27,279.
do., chh. 1. 3. do.	80	do.	Ivory	,, 27,287.
do chh. 1-3. do.	12	do.	Gilt palmleaves	27,288.
do., ohh. 1-3.	13	do.	dō.	Orient, 1607.
do chh. 1-3.	16	do.	do.	,, 1608.
do chh. 1-3.	17	do.	Palmleaves painted red	,, 1609.
do., chh. 1-3.	17	do.	Gilt palmleaves	,, 2171.
do., chh. 1-3. Defective.	14	do.	do.	,, 2604.
do. chh. 1-3.	12	do.	do.	,, 2605.
Bhikkhu-Patimokkham	14	Burmese	Palmleaves	Add. 17,328a.
do in part	80	Square char.	Gilt palmleaves	" 6779 A.
do fraement		do.	Gilt palmleaf	" 6779 B.
do: fraement	ထ	Kambojian	Palmleaves	Orient. 1066.
do., in part, with Burmese interp.	1-	Burmese	Silvered palmleaves	Add. 4850 A.

Number of MS.	Add. 4850 B.	,, 10,552.	Orient. 1309.	Add. 19,957. Eg: 1115.	Orient, 2176. Orient, 12456.	Eg. 766. Add. 17,944.		Add. 18,755a. Orient. 1436.	Add. 15,262. Orient. 2244, foll. ka-khaḥ [Ch.].	Add. 17,678.
Material.	Silvered palmleaves	Palmleaves	do.	do. do.	do.	Paper Palmleaves	II. SUTTA PIȚAKAM.	Palmleaves do.	do. do.	do.
Character.	Burmese	do.	Sinhaleso	Sarmese do	do. Kambojian	Sinhaleso Burnese	II. SUL	Rarmeso do.	do. Sinbalese	do.
Aumber Title, of leaves.	Bhikkhu-Pâtimokkham, fragment, with Burmese interpretation	Bhikkhu-Pâtimokkham, with Bur- mese interpretation 52	Bhikkhu-Pâtimokkhum, with Sinha- lose interpretation, and Bikkhu- nî-Pûtimokkham	Bhikkhuni-Pâtimokkham, with Bur- mesc interpretation Bhikkhunivibhango. Defective. 42	Kankhâvitaranî, with Burmese in- terpretation. Defective 318 Samanta-vâsâdikâ, Fragment 24			Diona Kledvo; Slakkhanda-vaggo 166 do.	do,, With Burneso interpretation. Defective 380 Beahmajda Sutta 32	do, with Sinbulese interpretation 138

	Num	ber				
Title,	of leaves.		Character.	Material.	Z	Number of MS.
Brahmajalasutta Afthakatha	137		Sinhalese	Paper	Orient.	Orient. 2233 [Childers].
Samannaphala Sutta	Ž	4 Ro	Roman	do.	•	2234, Foll. 1-54 [Ch.].
Samannaphalasutta Vannana	2	9 Sin	Sinhalese	do.	: 2	2234, foll. 55-133 [Ch.]·
Kevattasutta	•	œ	do.	do.	: =	2235, foll. 1-8 [Ch.].
Kevattasutta Vannanâ		5	do.	do.	: 3	" foll. 9–13 [Ch.].
Mahanidana Sutta	-	_	do.	Palmleaves	: *	2244, foll. ga-ge [Ch.].
do.	ř	4	do.	Paper	: :	2236, foll. 1-14 [Ch.].
Mahanidanasutta Vannana	86	73	do.	do.	: 2	", foll. 15-46 [Ch.].
Mahaparinibbana Sutta	11,	1	do.	do.		2237 [Ch.].
do.	2	5	do.	do.		2238, foll. 1-55 [Ch.].
do.	9	ಣ	do.	do.	: :	2239, foll. 1-63 [Ch.].
do.	ë	8	do.	Palmleaves		2241a. [Ch.].
Mahaparinibbanasutta Vannana	4	0	do.	do.	: \$	22416. [Ch.].
do.	32			Paper	: :	2238, foll. 56–134 [Ch.].
do.	104			do.	~	2239, foll. 64-167 [Ch.].
do	128		do.	do.	: :	2240, foll. 1-128a [Ch.].
Mahasamaya Sutta	4	4 Bu	Burmese	Palmleaves	Add.	7,328b.
Mahasatipatthana Sutta	16	5 Sin	Sinhalese	do.	Orie	Orient. 2244, foll. ghi-na [Ch.].
do. Defective	_	1 Bu	Burmese	do.	•	10,560a.b.
ta, with	Burmese					
explanation	44	9 9	do,	do.	Orient.	2170.
٠.	Defective. 118		Sinhalese	do.	2	2264.
Sigâlovâda Sutta	•	7	đo.	do.		2244, foll. gai-ghā [Ch.].
do.		6	do.	Paper	2	2243, foll. 2–10 [Ch.].
Sigalovadasutta Atthakatha	26	æ	do.	_do.		2243, foll. 12-69 [Ch].
do.	~	4	do.	do.	: 2	1051 [Ch.].

Material. Number of MS.	Palmleaves Orient, 1048 [Ch.].		do. ,, 2242, foll. 2-56 [Ch.	aves	do. ,, 2241c. [Ch.].			Palmleaves Add. 21,903.	"	:	, ,			Silverplates Eg. 764, foll. ka-kli.	Palmleaves Orient, 22450 [Ch.]		Paper Orient, 2261, 1011, 54-61 [CII.].	Palmleaves "2276.			do. ,, 2089.	1005 [Ch]	Λ.7.7.1	do. Orient. 1273.
Character.	-	do.	Roman	Sinhalese	do.	do.	do.	do.	do.	Kambojian	Sinhalese	do.	do.	do.	do.	Burmese	Sinhalese	do.	do.	Burmese	do.		Sinhalese	ao. Kambojian
Number of leaves.	9	53	5.5	12	2	15	4	33	254	422	53	14	235	11	တ	11	80	438	414	275	171	th 21		161 nc 360
men.	11the.	Sigalovadasutta Atthakatha	Sangiti Sutta	Dasuttara Sutta	To continue to Vennens	Dasuttarasutta vainjana.	Wahasudassanasutta Vannanâ. Defective	do. with Sinhalese interp.	Sumanoalavilâsinî	MAITHTAN NIKAYO: Mûlapañnâsakam. Defec.	Sotingthang Sutta	Calebommayibhanog Sutta	Suraman Nivîxo Defec. at the end	Themsookleemsvattans Sutta	Duammacan by woman sees	Cimmanda Sutta with Burmese interp.	Archibete Semunitam	ASSURANCE SUPPLY COMMANDA NITRARY	ANGULARIA MARATO	do Ninâta 8-11. Defective	Wanorathanûranî Tîkâ. Defective	Khuddaka Nikâyo: Khuddaka Pâtho, with	Sinhalese interp.	Dhammapadam, with Sinhalese interpretation

Number of MS.	Add. 11,553.	Orient. 2245a. [Ch.].	Add. 17,554, foll. ka-kū. ,, 17,554–17,555.	2603.	Add. 21,578.	,, 27,469.	,, 12,237—12,238. 10,598	Orient, 1245a.b.	,, 2193.	999.	Add. 21,612.		Add. 19,978. ,, 20,781. Orient. 1237.
Material,	Palmleaves do.	طه. طه.	do.	do,	do.	do.		do.	do.	do.	Tinplate	PIŢAKAM.	Palmleaves do.
uber ives. Character.	X .X	8 8 Go.	Ka	•	•	5 Sinhalese	•		Burmese	do. Kambojian	Burmese	АВНІДНАММА РІҐАКАМ.	Burmese do. do.
Title. Of leaves. Ittivuttaka Atthakathâ, by Dammapâla.	Defective. 341 Suttanipâta Dhammika Sutta with Commonton.	Brahmanadhammikasutta Vannanâ Mangalasutta Tikâ	Mangalattha-dìpan1 853 Mangaladìpanî Aṭṭhakathâ. Fragment 24	Mahhinddesagantho Paramatthajotikâ, with Burmese interpre-	• •	Mahânipâta, with Burmese intermretation 650	且		Mahosatha-Jatakam, With Burmese interp. 65 Mahosatha-Jatakam, With Burmese in-	terpretation. Defective 560 Jujakapabbam, with Siamese interp. 17	Gathas	III.	Daktukant, with Burmese interp. Defec. 179 Yamaram. Incomplete do. do. 100

Title.	Number of leaves.	Character.	Material.	Number of MS.
Atthasalinf. with Burmese interpretation	480	Burmese	Palmleaves	Orient, 2173.
Sammohavinodanî. Defective	179	do.		7, 2010.
Patthânappakarana Atthakathâ	147	Kambojian	do.	Add. 11,992.
Lînatthapadavannanâ or Abhidhammassa Mûlatîkâ, by Ânandâcâriya	338	Burmese	do.	,, 11,641.
		,		
	IV. RE	IV. RELIGIÕUS WORKS.	ORKS.	
Double	147	Sinhalese	Palmleaves	Orient, 1092.
rationam Dowittoconithonarennana	89	Kambojian	do.	,, 1246a.
Lattersange by Wissage	427	Burmese	do.	Add. 15,261.
Subtable Listed a	346	do.	do.	Eg. 1116.
do fraement	11	do.	do.	Add. 9953.
Viendahi Maggo	240	Sinhalese	do.	,, 11,658.
do	308	do.	do.	Orient, 2246 Ch. J.
Sarasanoaho	312	Kambojian	do.	,, 1044 [Ch.].
A bhidh ammatthasan caho	25	Burmese	do.	Add. 10,553.
do	24	do.	do.	,, 12,246.
do.		do.	do.	Orient, 2247 [Ch.].
do chh 1-3. with Burmese interpretation	32	do.	do.	2170.
do., ch. 2. with Burmese interpretation		do.	do.	Add. 10,556.
do ch. 5. with B. interpretation	42	do.	do.	", 6/81 B.
do., ch. 8, with B. interpretation	37	do.	do.	,, 10,557.

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Number of MS.	Add. 26,660. Orient. 2248 [Ch.]. Add. 5889.
Material.	Palmleaves do. do.
Character.	Burmese Sinhalese Burmese
Number Title, of leaves, (Abhidhammatthasangaha Tikâ, with Burmese interpretation Saddhammopâyana, with Sin. interpretation 89 Invocations to Buddha, with B. interpretation 14

V. CIVIL LAW CODES.

LEGENDARY TALES AND HISTORY. VI.

			[Ch.]	[Ch.]	
	1090.	458.	2250.	2249.	
	Orient.		:	" 2249. [Ch.].	
	Palmleaves				
	Sinhalese	Burmese	Sinhalese	do.	
	140	392	88	33	
Collection of Vatthus, with Sinhalese inter-	pretation. Defective at the end	Milindapanho, with B. interpretation	Mahâyamso, chh. 1-37.2	Dîpavaniso	

¹ The British Museum possesses two Burmese Commentaries on portions of the above work, viz. 1. Manurija Dhammasat, a Com. on the third chapter (MS. Orient. 1029). 2. Manurika, a Com. on the sixth chapter (MS. Add. 27,458). Dr. A. Führer, formerly of Würzburg, now of Bombay, has been engaged on these MSS. during his stay in London. On the Dhammasattapakaranan see a communication by Dr. Rost, in Indische Studien I. 315-320.
Bast, in Indische Studien I. 315-320.
ABS. Orient 2251, which forms also part of the Childers collection, contains variant readings to the Mahâvamso, collected from Turnour's text, one Burmese MS, and five Sinhalese MSS.

Title.	Number of leaves.	Character.	Material.	Number of MS.
Sâsanavaṃso	73	do.	do.	" 2252. [Ch.].
do.	83	do.	do.	,, 2253. [Ch.].
Hatthavanagallavaṃso, with Sinhalese interp.	49	do.	do.	Add. 24,999.
	VII	VII. RHETORIC.	ľď.	
Subodhâlankâra, with Burmese interpretation 54 Burmese	54	Burmese	Palmleaves	Add. 27,545.
	11/1	TOBORT T		
	1Τ λ	YIII. FRUSUDI.	Ϊ.	
Kavisârapakaranam Kavisâratîkâ Nissaya	54 181	Burmese do.	Palmleaves do.	Add. 27,545.
	IX.	IX. GRAMMAR.	~	
Mûlakaccâyano, books 1-3, with Siamese				
version	U.S	Kambojian	Palmleaves	Orient. 1246c.
	∞ .	Burmese	do.	,, 2178a.
Kaccâyanappakaraṇam. Defective	71	do.	do.	" "
Kaccayanappakaranam	81	Sinhalese	Paper	", 2254 [Ch.].
Fragment, wit	119	Burmese	Palmleaves	Add. 19,630a.
do. do.	/.	do.	do.	,, 18,7556.
Sandhikappa and Namakappa	55	Sinhalese	Paper	Orient. 2255 [Ch.].
Nâmakappa	15	Burmese	Palmleaves	" 854 [Ch.].

Number of MS.	Add. 12,243.	Add. 17,679.	Add. 18,754.	,, 27,289.	Orient. 2256 [Ch.].	,, 1076.	,, 478.		Add. 27,289.	Ottent. 2101.		Orient, 2258 [Ch.].	" 2659 [Hardy]. " 2661.
Material.	do.	do.	$\mathbf{Palmleaves}$	do.	do.		do.	HY.	Palmleaves	·on	WORKS.	Paper	Palmleaves do.
Character.	do.	Sinhalese	Burnese	do.	do.		do.	X. LEXICOGRAPHY.	Burmese	Drimacoo	MISCELLANEOUS WORKS.	Sinhalese	do. do.
Number of leaves.	80	39	3-T3	215	369	90	219	X. L	34 34	0		99	31 48
Title,	Sandhiltappa Nissaya do. and Karakakunya Nissaya	Saddamâlâ	Mukhamatta-dipanî, with B. interpretation	(10,	Naddenidhipakarajam Vikulenaden Vi	i action of the state of the st	Moggallayinnapakaranam, with Burmese interp. 219		Abhidhanappadipika. Defective Pali-Sinhalese Vocabulary. Incomplete		XI.	Astrological tracts, in Pali and Sinhalese Kayaviratigathâsumi, Pali text, with Sinha- lese interpretation. See Harly's Mannal.	p. 539 Vuttamâlasandesasatakam, with Sin. interp.

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In the following alphabetical list, which I should not have been able to draw up had it not been for the specially kind assistance of the accomplished head of the Library, all the MSS. are on palm-leaves unless otherwise stated. Besides these Pâli books the Library possesses a collection unrivalled in Europe, of the works on the history of Buddhism written in Sinhalese.

Name.	Character. Sinh.	No. of leaves.	Library Mark. Add. MS. 923
Abhidhanappadîpika Abhidhammattha-sangaha ¹	Burm.	192	1257
Atthanagala-vansa	Sinh.	24	925
Ambattha-sutta-atthakathâ	,,	10 (paper	
Kammav^câ	Sq. Pâli		1260
,,	_		292, 293
,, (fragments)			340, 341
Khuddaka-pâṭha	Sinh.	15 (paper	931
Cariyâ-piṭaka	,,	44 ,,	935
Dîpavansa	,,	146 ,,	944
,,	,,	31	945
,,	"	27	946
,,	"	59	1255
Pâtimokkha	Burm.		1249
Payoga-siddhi	Sinh.	103	1253

¹ Mr. Bradshaw has a copy of the Vannana on this work in his own library.

Name.	Character.	No. of leaves.	Library Mark.
Padarûpa-siddhi	Sinh.	59	1254
Peyyâla-kaṇḍa (imperfect)	Kâmb.	32	1256
Bâlâvatâra	Sinh.	41	957
,, with sanna	,,	151	958
Buddhavansa	,,	214 (paper)	951
Bodhivansa 1	",	62	953
Brahmajâla Sutta (with Sanna)	,,	120	955
,, ,,		134	956
Bhesajja-mañjûsâ	Burm.	144	1252
Mahâvagga (?)	Burm.		225
Mahâvansa	Sinh.	172	291
,,	Burm.		296
**	Sinh.	241	962
22	,,	181	963
22	"	183	964
,, Tîkâ	,,	188	965
Milinda Pañha	"	154	1251
Ratthapâla Sutta (with Sanna)	"	33	978
Rasavâhinî	"	10 (paper)	973
Lalâța-dhâtu-vansa	**	197	974
Vibhanga	,,	59	978
Visuddhi-magga	"	357	980
Sandhi-kappa	"	154 (paper)	983
Saļāyatanavagga (sanyutta)	Burm.	200	986
Satipatthâna Sutta	Sinh.	17	988
Sigâlovada Sutta		11 (paper)	984
Sumangala-pasadana	Burm.	53 (baber)	294
Sumangala-vilasini	Sinh.	250	987
Sutta Nipâta		39	989
Duma rithana	"	00	<i>3</i> 03

The library also possesses a Sinhalese Sanna on this work written on 178 palm-leaves.
 This MS. contains text and Burmese Nissaya combined.

LIST OF PÂLI MANUSCRIPTS

IN THE

COPENHAGEN ROYAL LIBRARY.

[I HAVE compiled the following list from Westergaard's Catalogue, and included, from information kindly supplied by Professor Fausböll, the additions made to this department of the library since the publication of that catalogue.

—Rh. D.]

I. PIŢAKA TEXTS AND COMMENTARIES.

Title.	No. of leaves.	Character
Parivâra	138	Sinh.
Kammavâcâ, cap. 1 and 4	14	Square
Kankhâ Vitaraņi	128	Sinh.
Khudda Sikkhâ, with Burm. Sanna	a 139	Burm.
Dîgha-Nikâya	272	Sinh.
Sumangala Vilasinî		Do.
Mahâ-samaya Sutta Vaṇṇanâ	32	Kâmb.
Majjhima ,,	277	Sinh.
Papañca Sûdanî	389	Do.
Lînattha Pakâsanâ	366	Burm.
(Tîkâ on last in three sepa-	- 112	Do.
rate MSS.)	165	Do.
Sati-paṭṭhâna Sutta	102 1	Sinh.
Vammîka Sutta	17	Do.
Sanyutta Nikâya	346	Do.
Anguttara Nikâya	502	Do.

¹ Leaves 41-102 are Sinhalese Sanna.

Title.	No. of leaves.	Character.
Manoratha Pûranî	paper	Sinh.
Nava-nipâta (fragment)	28	Burm.
Dhammapada	28	Sinh.
,, Vaṇṇanâ	298	Do.
" with Sinh. Sanna	92	Do.
Sutta-nipâta	26)	Do.
Paramattha Jotikâ	157 }	Do.
Mahâ-maṅgala Sutta	3)	Do.
Sinh. Sanna on ditto }	98∫	Do.
Sattasûryodgamana Sûtra		n.
(Pâli followed by Sin. Sanna)	68	Do.
Tirokudda Sutta	3	
(Pâli text and com. followed by		
Sinh. Sanna)		
Dhamma-cakkappavattana Sutta	,	
(with com.)	14	Do.
Paramattha Dîpanî	219	Do.
Jâtaka Commentary	806	Do.
Dhamma-Sangani, Attha-salinî	243	Do.
Vibhanga	89 ₎	
Sammoha Vinodanî	175	Do.
Com. on Patthâna	63)	
••		
II. EXTRA-CANONICA	AL WORKS.	
Sâra Sangaha	126	Sinh.
Pâli Muttaka Vinaya	215	Do.
Upâsaka Janâlankâra	215 95	Do.
Milinda Pañha	183	Do.
Millinga Fanna	117	Do. Do.
Jinâlankâra Vannanâ	210	$\mathbf{D_0}$.
Rasavâhinî	81	\mathbf{D}_{0} .
Mahâyansa	129	$\mathbf{D_0}$.
Bâlâvatâra	33	Do.
" with Sanna 1	91	Do.
"	105	Do.
"	82	Do.

¹ This and the two following Sannas are three distinct works.

Title.	No. of leaves.	Character.
Kaccâyana Sâra	§ 4	Sinh.
", ", Yojanâ	(20	Do.
Moggalâna Vyâkaraṇa	89	Do.
Rûpa Mâlâ	11	Do.
**	11	Do.
Abhidhâna Padîpikâ	50	Do.
" " with Sanna	139	Do.
Akkhyâta Pada, with Sanna	35	Do.
Dhâtu Mañjûsâ	6	Do.
Dhâtu Pâtha Dhâtu Mañjûsâ	{ 20	Do.

[Professor Fausböll has also favoured us with the following list of the Pâli MSS. in the University Library at Copenhagen.]

- 1. Mahâ Samaya Sutta (Pâli with Burmese Sanna).
- 2. Nemi Jâtaka.
- 3. Temiya Jâtaka.
- 4. Mahâ Janaka Jâtaka.
- 5. Suvanna Sâma Jâtaka.
- 6. Kaccayana's Grammar (sandhikappa). All the above in one volume, together with two Jâtakas in Burmese.
- 7. The Mahâvagga of the Vinaya in Sinhalese character.
- 8. Mahâvansa Tîkâ, also in Sinhalese characters.

PÂLI MSS. AT STOCKHOLM.

[Dr. E. W. Dahlgren, the Secretary of the Swedish Society of Anthropology and Geography at Stockholm, has been kind enough to send me, in English, the following list of the Pâli and Sinhalese MSS. now at Stockholm, and collected in Ceylon by Baron Nordenskiöld. It is compiled from a description of them contributed to the Journal of the Society by Professor Fausböll.]

- 1. Brahmajâla-Sutta, on 134 palm-leaves, paged ka-jhû, with 7 lines on each side. The MS. contains the first Sutta of the Digha-Nikâya. Pâli followed by a Sinhalese Sanna.
- 2. Brahmajâla-Sutta, on 164 palm-leaves, pag. ka-tî, with 6-7 lines on each side. The same work as No. 1. Pâli followed by a Sinhalese interpretation.
- 3. Mahâsatipaṭṭhâna-Sutta, on 106 palm-leaves, pag. ka-chlrî, with 7-10 lines on each side. This MS. contains the 21st Sutta of the *Dîgha-Nikâya*. Pâli followed by a Sinhalese interpretation.
- 4. Mahâdhammasamâdâna-Sutta, on 25 palm-leaves, pag. ka-khlri, with 6-10 lines on each side. The MS. contains the 6th Sutta of the 5th part of the Majjhima-Nikâya. Pâli, followed by a Sinhalese interpretation.
- 5. Rasavâhinî, on 206 palm-leaves, pag. ka-dau, with 8-9 tines on each side.
- 6. ABHIDHÂNAPPADÎPIKÂ, on 146 palm-leaves, pag. ka-ñâ, with 8-10 lines on each side. Pâli, with Sinhalese interpretation.
- 7. Subhasûtrârthavyâkkhyânayayı, on 55 palm-leaves, pag. ka-ghri, with 5 lines on each side. This MS. contains a

Sinhalese translation of the Subha-Sutta, in the Digha Nikûya.

- 8. Muwa-Jâtaka, on 74 palm-leaves, pag. ka-nirî. Elu verse.
- 9. Pada-rûpa-siddhi, on 212 palm-leaves, pag. ka-dhî, with 8-9 lines on each side. A Sinhalese translation of the well-known Pâli grammar.¹
- 10. Chapters 7-11 of the Pûjâvaliya, a Sinhalese prose work, giving an account of gifts made to the Buddhist order. The MS. consists of 96 palm-leaves, pag. ka-cah, with 6 lines on each side.
 - 11. Single pages of divers Sinhalese manuscripts.

¹ The sixth chapter of this work has just been published as a *Doctor Dissertation* by Albert Grünwedel, of München.

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